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AUTHOR Elkins, J., Ed.
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ABSTRACT

Provided are 10 papers on the handicapped student's transition from secondary education to employment. Entries are included with the following titles and authors: "Transition from School to Work" (on the conditions of such transition for young people in Australia) by E. Guthrie; "Functional Literacy and Numeracy of Australian 14 Year Olds" (a study of the measured performance of students at the end of approximately 9 years of compulsory schooling) by S. Bourke; "World Trends in Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment of the Handicapped" by K. Jenkins; "Work Experience Programs--School and Community Partnership in Learning a Living" by J. Noble; "Discrimination in Employment" (a review of some of the commonly asserted grounds for discrimination) by K. Ryan; "Vocational Training Programs for the Handicapped in the Transition from School to Work" by R. Andrews; "The School Leavers Unemployment Mobilization Program" (the description of a career education program for school dropouts) by J. MacDonald; "Adult Literacy Classes" (an outline of practical techniques used by teachers in adult literacy classes) by D. Burnes, et al.; "Minorities and the Transition from School to Work--The Second Generation Adolescent" (findings of a pilot study on the personal and social adjustment problems of second generation Italian immigrants) by E. Vasta; and "Minorities and the Transition from School to Work" (an outline of what can be done about the barriers preventing children from realizing potential abilities and aspirations on leaving school) by D. Muir. (SBH)

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FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

Edited by

J. ELKINS

FRED AND ELEANOR SCHONELL EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH CENTRE

UNIVERSITY OF QUEENSLAND, ST. LUCIA, 4067, AUSTRALIA

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FOREWORD

The issues of vocational preparation and career development are critical at the time when children grow towards adulthood and prepare to leave the shelter of schooling for the world of work. In times of economic stringency, these issues assume even greater significance. But for the school leaver with a handicap the issues become problems which are easily perceived to be almost insurmountable.

The papers in this volume were selected from those presented at this seminar and relate to various aspects of the transition from school to work. Several sessions of workshop or discussion did not lend themselves to publication. It is not surprising that many of the ideas expressed are to be found in the Report of the Working Party on the Transition from Secondary Education to Employment, one of whose members presented the opening paper. Other speakers gave particular emphasis to problems of handicap.

So much remains to be accomplished. Students with recognized physical or intellectual handicap provide particular and unique demands on both education systems and society at large if they are to realize vocational satisfaction. Migrants, Aboriginals and others culturally or economically disadvantaged have needs no less important. Yet more students fail to acquire marketable skills at the end of their compulsory schooling. The attendance of so many at this Seventh Annual Seminar in Special Education organized by the Schonell Educational Research Centre bears witness to a growing concern.

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CHAPTER 1

TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

Eula Guthrie

The transition from school to work or further study is probably the second major foreseeable upheaval in the lives of most individuals - the first having been the transition from home to school. It marks a recognized initiation into adult life and the emergence of one's adult identity. It involves a number of adjustments and changes to such things as:

a. the type of employment or study on which one embarks and the recognition of the prospects offered and the demands made;

b. social adaptation to a world in which one is expected to be reasonably autonomous, to take initiative without necessarily checking each step or action with some authority for permission; and where the sanctions on one's behaviour are largely self-imposed;

c. the end of the prolonged economic dependence of childhood, or at least a lessening degree of dependence, and the end of close emotional dependence on the family unit of one's infancy and a turning towards the assumption of the responsibility within other relationships and social units.

I propose to examine certain observations about the present conditions of such transition for young people in Australia and in order to set the perspectives, it will be necessary to look at certain demographic facts, certain economic conditions and educational observations.

Unemployment in Australia

The first demographic fact which will influence the employment of young people is that, in the period following the Second World War, Australia, like most countries, experienced a fairly dramatic increase in the birth rate. Schools have felt the impact of this increased population for some time but because the retention rates in the schools and the enrolments in tertiary and other post-secondary institutions have absorbed a number of these young people, the effect of the 'baby boom' has been masked to some extent and is only now beginning to show itself in the employment market.

The reasonable affluence of the Australian community and the expansion of industries of all kinds during the optimistic late sixties and early seventies cushioned the effects; there was still evidence that there were more job opportunities than people to fill them.

However, with the recession of 1974-75 came the recognition that unemployment had become a distressing feature of Australian life for the first time since the Great Depression and the temporary recession of 1961. The figures for September, 1975, showed that the total actual number of unemployed school leavers in Australia was 8,466. (The figures for September would be an index of the situation before the annual influx of school leavers and the registration of students during the holiday period which inflate the figures for the months between the end of school examinations and the beginning of term for tertiary institutions and for the resumption of industry following the Christmas break.) By comparison for the period in the three previous years, 1972 showed 6,987; 1973 showed 3,931; and 1974 showed 6,206. It is true that there was a total of 26,007 unfilled vacancies on the labour market in September, 1975, but most of these vacancies required people with specific qualifications and skills which automatically excluded school leavers from filling the positions. It was estimated that the total number of school leavers and graduates from universities and other educational institutions would exceed 227,000 at the end of 1975 of whom 170,000 would not be continuing with full-time education. Figures published recently give rise to serious concern about the number of unemployed in the community and the number of young people who are unemployed. Even if one recognizes that there is considerable argument about the accuracy of some of the figures or that certain adjustments have been made, one must recognize that there is a greater number of young people each year who are unable to find employment and that the prospect is that the number will increase for some years to come.

Figures from Commonwealth Employment Services show that the duration of unemployment is on average higher than it has been in all age groups and longest of all for school leavers. The Commonwealth Employment Service rate of placement has fallen by fifty per cent.

It is obvious that by the year 2,000 there will be sterner competition for available jobs with the pressure being greater at the entry stage because of the greater proportion of young people in the population for many years to come. Retirements at the upper end of the scale will not create sufficient vacancies to absorb those wishing to enter the workforce.

Add to these considerations the observations on the re-entry of married women into the workforce and the retention of married women who do not choose to have families, and it becomes obvious that there will be competition for available jobs between young people leaving school or training institutions and older, and sometimes more experienced and more highly skilled people. That this female workforce will remain a factor in the labour market is undisputed. Not only are women beginning to see a more active role for themselves outside child-rearing but economic necessity forces most women to work for a considerable part of their lives in order to maintain living standards which families consider acceptable within our affluent society. Single women are also more likely to be better qualified and career-oriented.

Evidence of higher standards of education in the community, not only in the sense of higher retention rates within the schools, but of greater enrolments in post-secondary courses of all kinds, suggests that the level of skills or qualifications available to employers has risen. Concurrently employers are able to demand higher attainments and it is not unknown for the level of recruitment to be set at a point considerably higher than is really required for the performance of some tasks. As an example, in New South Wales there is a growing number of advertisements which speak of the Higher School Certificate as the anticipated level of attainment for prospective employees whereas, a few years ago, the School Certificate or its equivalent would have been the norm.

All this amounts to an increase in the pressures on young people to acquire qualifications for work which is available less readily than it was in the past for people with lower qualifications. Having acquired those qualifications by remaining longer at school, many young people enter employment not only with better attainments but with higher expectations of the job, its prospects and the treatment which the employers accord them. In recent years when this pattern was emerging, employers protested increasingly about the less docile attitude of employees and the growing tendency for a dissatisfied worker to walk off the job and look for other prospects. This has led to some animosity between employers and young employees without the circumstances being widely appreciated and also to a certain disorder in patterns of employment and retention in employment, not to say financial loss to the employers about which they may legitimately complain.

Our society has been based upon the belief in *laissez-faire*. Direction of human resources into industry or services to meet the identified needs of the community has been tolerated only in times of national emergency such as wartime or the early colonial years. People have had the right to decide, how long they or their children should stay at school, whether the children went on to higher education and into what type of employment they should go. There has been little or no reference to what the projections for employment opportunities are or what the needs of society will be. Recently such figures have been kept but they are usually classified information. One may ask if this is justifiable. Today there is a certain uneasiness about the number of people competing for a limited number of jobs, the over-supply of people in certain types of employment and the under-supply of people in certain other employment. This country, for almost the first time, is seriously disturbed about a declared unemployment figure of six per cent, at a fairly conservative estimate, and faces the prospect of having to enter into some kind of social planning in order to prevent the waste of human resources, the enforced poverty of the unemployed, and the frustration and loss of productivity and income resulting from undue mobility in the workforce as a result of the discontent or mismanagement of human resources.

This picture is not peculiar to Australia. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) has recently published a number of papers dealing with economic conditions and employment figures in developed countries, indicating that the new characteristics are rising unemployment and a particularly disquieting rise in the number of unemployed young people.

Even those countries such as Germany which had shown phenomenal economic expansion following post-war recovery and had imported labour from the poorer countries such as Spain, Italy and Yugoslavia, are now reflecting this new pattern of high unemployment. Those countries whose economic stability has been disturbed in recent years and whose currency and investment rates have fallen have been the first to show the effects, but all the western and developed countries are now inter-dependent to such an extent that the pattern is evident in all their economies.

In recognition of these unwelcome facts and of a general concern about the clamant protests of employers on the standard of young workers in both skill and attitudes, and in recognition of the growing dissatisfaction of the people in the workforce, a National Working Party has been established in this country. Its purpose was to examine the problems of the transition from school to work; the standard of services offered both in schools and through other agencies to facilitate this transition; and to identify the problems of particular groups which appear to be at a greater disadvantage in the transition and to make recommendations about ways in which the transition might be made more easily by young people, with greater prospect of satisfaction not only to them but to employers and of general benefit to the Australian community. The Working Party met late last year and its report is now almost completed. The report is not really such a finished product as those of us who have contributed sections would have wished, but the committee was told that its operations were to cease by June 30th, 1976. Several states such as Western Australia, South Australia and New South Wales have set up committees of their own both to supply information to the National Working Party and to carry on the work of that group in recommending and implementing action within those states.

Choosing to work

It might well be asked why this pre-occupation with the selection of work and the value of work for the individual should be such a major part of our considerations at this seminar on the problems of transition from school to the community.

For historical reasons Australians, most of whom derive from assisted migrants, convicts and free settlers from poor conditions which instigated their migration, subscribe to the *work ethic*; they believe not only that they will have to go to work to support themselves but that they have the right to work. For most of the population, work does not produce mere subsistence but a style of living which is high by world standards and is important to the Australian sense of personal and national identity.

Choosing employment, then, has become an almost universal pre-occupation taking account not only of the nature of the task but remuneration, advancement prospects, conditions of work and security of tenure. There is some evidence of changing expectations; no longer do people necessarily anticipate lifelong work in one job. Some foresee change in search of better conditions, monetary or physical, in urban or rural areas; others expect to work while developing some private enterprise which offers greater personal

satisfaction and sufficiency; others work intermittently to support travel, adventure or special interests which are non-remunerative but satisfying.

Some different expectations have been observed in the last decade when the general affluence of society and more benevolent social welfare legislation have allowed small but growing numbers of people to rely on economic support from family, group or government if they choose not to work. Disenchantment with materialist goals, an aspect of the 'counter-culture', and the rejection of the work ethic is a luxury that members of an affluent society in a benign climate may afford, often in the name of intellectual and emotional rejection of standards they condemn, with some justice, as unworthy and unnatural.

For others in the community, changes in employment have been enforced by technological developments which make some job-skills obsolete while opening new prospects. Recently, economic conditions have curtailed employment in some fields and so changed job choices for prospective entrants to that field as well as for redundant workers. Such circumstances highlight a few of the difficulties of preparing students in schools for specific jobs and predicting the types of skills and courses which will best equip them for an employment market several years in the future. Though it is accepted that the majority will work, the problem remains of predicting what work will be available, what that work will demand and how to help students to find work which suits them.

From early infancy, people are interested in what a child will become. It is significant that children and adults make a close bond between personal identity and the work-role, speaking of what the person *is* as often as what he or she *does*, thus reinforcing the importance of vocational choice in the individual's life.

The choices of young children are, of course, largely undiscriminating and often emotionally inspired: mother, father, train-driver, fireman, spaceman, clown. The child takes no account of skill, training or remuneration. It might be observed that the aspirations of many parents, in the child's first years, are almost as fanciful but usually more socially ambitious. Parents and children, however, can nominate only those occupations of which they are aware, even at second-hand. Some never know more than a few possibilities if their environment is limited.

In later primary and in secondary school years some consciousness of social acceptability and real conditions asserts itself in children's minds, usually through parental influence, sometimes through mass media or school stimulation, and their preferences tend to the more ostensibly glamorous and less dirty or physically hard tasks. Some associate their job preference with hobbies or special interests or with residual romantic notions of travel and adventure. Hence jet-pilots, models, marine biologists, airline hostesses and boutique owners, fashion designers, ballerinas and actresses and television film-makers appear on the lists. Teachers and nurses appear, not for the glamour, but often because of travel opportunities or sometimes because an emerging social conscience suggests satisfaction in a helping or service role. Doctors figure largely for both sexes, for instance, sometimes

because of social service motives; sometimes because of society's glamorising the doctor; sometimes because it is believed that doctors make fine fortunes which can buy luxurious objects; sometimes (in secondary years) because ability and interest in mathematics and sciences suggest that this is an attainable goal.

Vocational choice and guidance

The concept of *vocational guidance* in schools thirty years ago was explicitly stated as an "endeavour to assist adolescents in making sound vocational choices ... in order that students leaving post-primary schools would be in a better position to enter occupations".[1] Though the stated aims are still accepted, the philosophy of guidance has changed. Formerly, theories of vocational guidance relied mainly on a combination of interviews, psychological and skill assessment. The expert Careers Adviser then was expected to tell the applicant for what type of work she or he seemed best suited on the basis of a single interview, in most cases, and the evidence of a battery of tests.

Careers choice or selection rather than vocational guidance was the object; accordingly, interviews and tests were usually conducted late in the student's career or after the student had left school. Much of the success of the method depended upon the range of knwoledge about available careers and the interest and perception of the interviewer as well as knowledge of the background of the student. Such interviewers had little chance of knowing much about the conditions of study under which the student worked or the family's capacity to pay for later training, though information on school performance was usually available. When careers advising was done by a member of staff who was also a teacher the opportunity for knowing more about the student's home conditions and personality was enhanced but not guaranteed.

With renewed awareness of developmental stages in learning, educators have recognized that a person's capacity to choose a career was a function of personal development, and the concept of 'vocational maturity' (K. Underwood, 1973, 1974) has been accepted.

Vocational maturity, which involves making realistic choices and having informed job expectations, is as variable as any other aspect of individual development and is bound up with personal factors including 'readiness', self-esteem and physical, intellectual and emotional capacity. It is also influenced by external conditions such as the assertion of parental expectations (both positive and negative), economic necessity, cultural expectations and conventions, measured ability or success, counselling and stimulation.

.....

1. *Role of Careers Adviser, Memorandum to Principals, Secondary 76/5, New South Wales Department of Education.*

> "The developmental approach has important implications for the careers advisory service. Students can no longer be expected to make a sensible decision on the basis of a single interview unless initial efforts have been made earlier in their education to encourage their vocational development. Whereas, originally the Careers Advisers' most important duty was to give an individual interview to every school leaver, their major responsibility now is to stimulate interest in career planning and to promote the students' vocational development. If their efforts are successful then the majority of the students will acquire a knowledge of themselves and of the world of work that will enable them to make a smooth transition from secondary school to employment or tertiary training."[1]

Another important assumption flowing from the developmental approach is that even if people are in possession of facts about work conditions and prospects in some employment field, they *cannot* make choices of the enduring kind until they have attained personal maturity and are motivated to make a choice. Vocational guidance then beomes a matter of having people who know the young person well, both as a person and as a student, who have contact with family members and have the background to acquaint the student with a wide variety of opportunities and inform the young person and his family of the conditions of work, the level and type of training necessary and the prospects which that employment offers. The emphasis is on acquaintance with a wide range of opportunities from which later choices can be made when the student knows his own capacity better and has developed some vocational maturity. The process is concerned with career education rather than career selection (the selection should be an end process in this education) and not merely vocational training in the sense of imparting special skills for a particular occupation or range of occupations.

Few reputable studies have been done on job-selection, though some are now in train. One by Connell *et al.* (1975) shows that in a list of thirteen items of prime concern nominated and ranked by adolescents "Choosing a future job" was the most important for junior and senior pupils, ahead of "Doing well in school" which might be expected to take precedence in these years. Both boys and girls gave this response. (It was observed that girls from working-class homes expressed especial concern about future employment, probably reflecting family conditioning in the realisation that few of them would aspire to further education.)

.....

1. *Ibid.*

For most respondents, the two items were linked and most said they were conscious that parents and teachers were concerned about their future employment and associated success at school with employment prospects.

Parental expectations are particularly significant in forming a child's aspirations and the school performance. It is natural for most parents to want for their children the best that can be had: the best education, the best job, the best income and the best that money can buy. "Best" is, of course, a matter of subjective interpretation. Parents throughout the centuries have tended to live vicariously through the achievements of their children and to want to give their children opportunities they did not have. Successive generations tend to surpass their parents' educational attainments and often their material standards. Retention rates in upper forms and enrolments in tertiary and further education confirm this trend in Australia.

When continuing education becomes a status symbol, however, and takes no account of the personal capacity or wishes of the student or the market for his training and skills then such ambition and the resultant expenditure of parents' and state money might well be questioned. Pupils may benefit greatly from parents' ambition and support and even from their driving strength but unduly ambitious demands may be destructive.

Anxiety to fulfil parents' expectations may result in apparent success, in terms of examinations and entry into some occupation which is considered prestigious but the personal unhappiness or resentment caused can endanger mental health. Despite effort, some children fail to fulfil their parents' expectations and both parent and child feel resentment and failure. Some young people assert themselves and choose another course in opposition to their parents' aspirations but this does not always result in a satisfactory choice. Sometimes the choice is satisfactory for the time being in that it gratifies the young person's wish for independence and this may be an acceptable temporary solution to the problem in personal terms, though it may be costly to an employer or the state.

Some parents, on the other hand, help to teach young people to limit their ambitions by having no apparent interest in the progress and welfare of their children, while others are concerned about their physical welfare but do not appreciate the potential of their children. Some children have had to leave school early and enter an occupation which is not the child aspired to, which does not extend his or her skill or intellectual capacity and which affords no emotional satisfaction. Sometimes this is the result of a parent's inability to maintain the child beyond a minimum period of economic dependence but in many cases the choice is made less on the grounds of economic necessity than on account of low expectations of the child who is, therefore, taught to have a low self-esteem. This is a major problem when the child is handicapped in some identifiable ways.

In some families children are told almost throughout their school lives that they will have to leave at a given stage; therefore, there is little incentive for them to work for some role which requires education beyond that point or requires some special skill. This attitude has been

noted particularly among parents who themselves have a poor educational background, among some migrant families, among families from rural and mining communities and poorer urban communities especially in relation to education for their daughters. The attitude seems to have stemmed often from the need for the girl's services at home or in the family business and the belief that she will marry early and not thereafter have a place in the workforce. These attitudes are changing slowly as educational levels in the community rise and as the child-rearing span in a woman's life is lessened and as economic pressures make a woman's earning capacity important in contributing to a family's standard of living.

Some of these early leavers may have a second chance through Evening College classes in those states which offer this facility, or through other forms of late entry program offered by some educational institutions.

For better understanding and more economic expenditure of money and effort it seems that parents and pupils should share in informed discussion about the pupil's capacity and the range of appropriate employment opportunities from an early stage of the child's school career. Little purpose can be served by delaying such consultation until the time of the pupil's leaving school for by then the pupil is committed to courses which may not qualify the person for the chosen employment and the family attitudes may already have taught the young person to limit his or her aspirations unduly.

It is important for parents to realize that they should contribute not only guarantees of economic support and a continuing interest in the child's education but also emotional support. Indeed, career education may well be needed for parents at a very early stage in their children's lives and in a detail not needed by the children until they are in the secondary years.

During adolescence, even before reaching school-leaving age, many students are modifying their ambitions and expectations by experience in part-time employment, found on their own initiative or through parents or friends (Table 1).

Table 1

Students in Part-time Jobs
(Percentage of Age Group)

Age		12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Boys	White-collar	12	19	18	29	28	26	13
	Blue-collar	25	25	27	29	33	32	20
Girls	White-collar	5	6	9	14	20	22	15
	Blue-collar	5	7	10	18	24	33	40

Connell et al., 1975 p 238.

The smaller percentage of girls in earlier adolescence taking paid jobs was the result of more of them having assigned duties, sometimes paid, in the home; the higher figures for girls and boys in later years reflect significant numbers who were contributing to their own support while still at school; often this was the only way the family could keep them at school.

These part-time jobs are often unlike those pupils would choose for a vocation, but are those open to people of that age wanting to earn money. Nevertheless, the jobs do influence later choices of work in several ways. Sometimes a sympathetic link with an employer or work-place influences the choice and even hastens the date of leaving school, especially if pupils are not doing well at school or are dissatisfied at school. Some might be said to drift into familiar jobs without really having considered unfamiliar alternatives.

Other pupils find new purpose and stay on at school, or enter technical training, to gain requisite qualifications for a desired job. Some working conditions, on the other hand, are perceived to be unattractive, physically and mentally, so that the idea of permanent employment there seems intolerable, and interest in study is awakened, or different subject choices are made. Awareness of traineeships and scholarships in some areas also stimulates students to new interest in school courses leading to careers in those areas.

In some schools, organized short-term work-experience programs achieve these results and give some understanding of what working for a living is like, even if regular work is not available or sought. Careers guidance in its various forms also exerts an influence on students' choices.

It is relevant to note what has been established about expectations adolescents hold and how they say they choose the type of work (Tables 2 and 3). Take, for instance, Connell's study which seems to be consistent with other studies of more specialized groups (Graduate Careers Council, 1973; Sydney University Careers Advisory Service, 1975; Underwood, 1973, 1974).

TABLE 2

Expected jobs on leaving school

(Percentage of Age Group)

	Boys				Girls			
	11-12	13-14	15-16	17-18	11-12	13-14	15-16	17-18
I Professional	55	52	55	69	59	50	54	74
II Managerial	5	5	6	5	0	0	3	2
III Clerical	3	10	10	13	17	25	27	8
IV Trades	11	16	13	4	2	1	1	2
V Semiskilled	6	4	2	1	10	8	3	0
VI Unskilled	13	7	5	3	13	9	7	8
Unclassifiable	2	2	2	1	0	2	2	2
Don't know	6	3	7	4	0	5	2	6
N	110	429	312	112	111	442	289	53

(Connell et al., 1975 p236)

TABLE 3

Designation of school leavers by percentage for all of Australia

1.	Professional	14.3	(18.1)
2.	Professional/Technical	8.1	(8.3)
3.	Managerial	3.3	(1.3)
4.	Clerical/Administrative	15.4	(23.1)
5.	Sales/Clerical	9.2	(13.4)
6.	Skilled Manual	9.7	(2.6)
7.	Semi-skilled/Skilled	3.3	(1.9)
8.	Unskilled/Semi-skilled	8.4	(5.5)
9.	Unknown or Not Classifiable	28.3	(25.8)

(Female leavers are shown in parenthesis.)

(Radford and Wilkes, 1975)

Their perceptions of influences and pressures are given in Table 4.

Table 4

Reasons for job choice

	Boys %	Girls %
Nature of the work	38	36
Arranged by someone else	8	9
Fill-in while waiting for something else	7	9
Good money	8	6
Good conditions	7	7
Drifted into it	4	6
Forced into it	5	4
The people	2	4
Security of the job	5	1
Other	9	8

(Connell *et al.* 1975, p236)

Figures from the Follow-up Study on Vocational Guidance (NSW Department of Education, 1966) offer further testimony on sources of information on future careers (Table 5).

Table 5

Sources of information on careers

	N	Girls	N	Boys	N	Total
1. Books, magazines, newspapers, etc.	20	(12.3%)	17	(11.4%)	37	(11.9%)
2. Career adviser or teachers at school	22	(13.5%)	16	(10.7%)	38	(12.2%)
3. Commonwealth Employment Service	2	(1.2%)	5	(3.4%)	7	(2.2%)
4. Friends	17	(10.4%)	19	(12.8%)	36	(11.5%)
5. Parent, guardian or relative	37	(22.7%)	35	(23.5%)	72	(23.2%)
6. Vocational Guidance Bureau	14	(8.6%)	16	(10.7%)	30	(9.6%)
7. Other	48	(29.5%)	37	(24.8%)	85	(27.2%)
9. Omitted	3	(1.8%)	4	(2.7%)	7	(2.2%)
	163		149		312	

The influence of family and school is significant. One other feature that was noted, with some surprise, was the analysis of "other" in most studies. The category included a great range of stimuli such as "divine guidance" (two) and "chances came at right moment". Most in this group, however, claimed that they had found the career for themselves, or had taken some suggestion and pursued the information and arranged the employment for themselves. There appears to be considerable independence and initiative among most young people once interest is stirred.

Many claimed information given by various agents was incomplete or outdated. Though this is, in some degree, inevitable allowing for production time and course changes, if printed information and films are used, it is not acceptable for this to be a constant criticism. Personal enquiry following basic information to create awareness is probably reasonable and certainly not incompatible with the initiative noted.

It is also necessary to prepare both the pupil and the family for what is often enforced parting in order to secure the necessary training or employment. This involves emotional, social and economic adjustment. Young people removed from their support systems (such as family, clubs, friends) and leisure occupations become vulnerable to many pressures they could otherwise withstand. Many "drop-outs" from courses attributed to study problems and some acts condemned by society as illegal or immoral can be traced to this separation.

Some young people face peculiar problems and it is our business at this seminar to explore those problems and suggest ways in which we might assist these people. Among such special groups I would suggest consideration should be given to those in isolated places, those with physical and mental disabilities, those with learning difficulties, those with language and cultural differences and the frequently neglected group, the "emotionally disturbed". It is important that none of these young people be relegated to a state of endless economic dependence as pensioners or condemned to menial work, but that they can be involved in some productive work for their own sakes and for the community's sake. I do not propose to treat these groups in detail here since there are others of great competence in this field who will be speaking to you and many of you attending the seminar will have particular views to put on this subject.

Women and girls

There is, of course, one other special group which I should mention though, indeed, in the past twelve months they have been drawn constantly to the attention of the public. The battle for them is by no means won and the mere suggestion that the term "battle" is appropriate indicates that, in some places at least, they must still be regarded as at a disadvantage. I refer to the women and girls in our community. In the studies by the Australian College of Education (1975) and the Universities of Sydney, New South Wales and Melbourne, the concentration of girls in certain types of occupations and faculties concerned mainly with clerical, secretarial, teaching and nursing jobs

and in studies such as the arts and behavioural and biological sciences has been stressed, as was their absence from others. You have all seen literature on these observations. Though there are more varied opportunities for girls than previously and fewer prejudices against them, there appears to be, as yet, no significant increase in awareness of the range of opportunities, except in some few cases, and no marked change has yet been observed in the patterns of choices which girls make. The Connell study and the Australian College of Education studies on Education for Girls note a concomitant lower self-esteem among girls than among boys and a tendency for girls to choose a context that is familiar or among people whom they find congenial. These observations have serious implications for assisting students to make satisfactory career choices. Family and community expectations also condition the types of choices for girls and boys.

The range of courses offered to girls and boys is evidently a factor of the size of a school (and its affluence if it is a non-government school). Where the subject-range is limited, then some jobs and professions are automatically excluded for those pupils denied the courses, not only because of course pre-requisites in post-secondary education but because interest in that subject and its subsequent prospects may never have been recognized.

Secondary school subject choices

"Streaming" or "tracking" which kept students on different ability levels each with pre-determined course offerings is rare in Australia now but in the past this practice has influenced the direction students have taken.

In a few states there is still a separation of "academically" and "technically" oriented students in designated schools, mainly in metropolitan areas and this could well be viewed as a premature selection process. The separation of girls in metropolitan schools which offer restricted courses and levels of study is not generally practised now in most states but the practice is open to severe criticism as an unwarranted discrimination with far-reaching effects on those girls in their vocational, professional and community roles. Demands for radically different curricula for any group, including those "disadvantaged" groups, carry the same danger, I suggest.

In recent years, money and security have not been major concerns for young people seeking jobs, according to surveys; this may well be different in the next few years. Even in the case of students leaving "early" (from all years of the secondary school) money and security are not said to be of prime importance which conflicts with claims made in the cases seeking exemptions from school before reaching statutory age, wherein the economic hardship of the family is frequently a major ground for application. Desire for economic independence and concern about financial difficulties at home do appear to influence more girls than boys, and girls from government schools more than those from non-government schools (Australian College of Education, 1975). Whether these worries are more common in the homes of such pupils or whether such worries are the reasons given to explain to the girls that they

cannot continue with their education, is not clearly established. In many migrant families such arguments are given to boys and girls, but especially to the girls, supported by the cultural conventions of many southern European communities, particularly those of rural origin (NSW Department of Education, 1976).

The work situation

If we are to understand how best to help young people, we must also consider the situation into which they move and some of the observations they have made about that work situation. Most young persons leaving school face a bewildering situation whether they go directly to work or whether they are still searching for work or seeking to enter further training. They are often ill-prepared in terms of how to deal with other adults, how to fill in forms, even how to find their way from home to work without moving in a pack or being driven in a family car. Those who have had the benefit of vacation or part-time employment or good counselling or even some Work Experience Programs through the schools may well make a better choice or find themselves happier in the transition they are making.

I think it must be accepted that all young people feel some qualms and that few of them are free entirely from difficulties during this time (and it will always be so), though we have all observed some cases where young people leaving school appear to enter upon a new lease of life and very quickly find that the new milieu offers them far greater satisfaction and much greater happiness. These people are, indeed, fortunate, or perhaps they have previously been so unhappy that the change offers the relief that affords them greater happiness.

Young people proceeding to technical training and apprenticeship training appear to have greater motivation and to adjust rather better than many other young people. This could be particularly because their course is more clearly mapped out for them or that there is within the apprenticeship system, if they are fortunate, a greater sense of security, of other people being interested in their welfare and program while being on hand to assist them and advise them. This stems not only from familiarity with skills but a sense of personal security and worth.

In entering employment the young person faces a whole range of new attitudes and experiences, as we have said. The size of the business into which he moves will vary from very large to very small; it may be an enterprise employing thousands, it may be an enterprise employing only one or two. It was found in studies conducted in South Australia and Tasmania that 93 per cent of all employers had fewer than twenty people on their payroll. These smaller organizations may offer greater personal contact and, therefore, some impression of greater interest. Employees may, on the other hand, suffer because the enterprise is so small that some of the amenities and services available in a larger business are lacking. Most large companies have well-established and formalized selection procedures and induction procedures. Some have well-supervised staff training. Many have attractive canteens, social clubs, credit

union groups and other services which help young people to feel that they are already part of the larger world beyond school.

One of the greatest difficulties identified by young people who have been interviewed and by their employers, is that many of them find that they lack physical and mental stamina of the kind demanded in employment. Some find that a whole day at work is extremely tiring despite the fact that we think of them as very physically active and capable of endurance beyond what is normal among many older workers. Even being on their feet for more than an hour or two can be a hardship for many young people. For many handicapped people it is impossible. Thus, for many handicapped people physical provisions are of major importance.

Many find that parents and teachers have for some years tolerated certain aberrations or idiosyncrasies in their personal appearance or in their behaviour, in the fond expectation that if tolerance were offered by the adults then the young people would respond or would at least remain in some kind of satisfactory communication with the school group or family group. Few young people on entering employment will find this same tolerance extended to them. Many, indeed, find that the attitudes of employers are far more conservative than any that they have so far encountered albeit they have complained bitterly about the conventional standards of their parents and those who teach them. It is also an instructive study to listen to the way in which other people in the work place, not only the employer but the fellow workers, speak to one another and to the new employees. Many find that though they feel that they have been oppressed both at home and at school they are, in fact, treated now with a curtness which is considered a necessary part of their induction or disciplining on entry to the workforce.

If we add to this the fact that many of them lack the work skills, often of a very high order, required in this area into which they are moving, then it is easy to understand the growing sense of uneasiness or insecurity which many feel. This will not necessarily express itself in an air of timidity but may well find expression in confrontation, argument and surliness. This last quality is mentioned by a significant number or employers. It may be that the employer's own manner might contribute to this reaction. Again young people are constantly being told that they are expected to behave in a mature way. They are being told to be their age. Many of them at this stage are not quite certain of the standards of behaviour which are expected of them and it is a criticism that perhaps this is not adequately explained either before they enter the job or by some agent of the employer once they are on the job. (I must in fairness say, of course, that many people for years might well have been telling these young people what would be expected of them, and in no uncertain terms, but that the young people have not heeded or, indeed, even heard what has been said. This again is a function of that vocational maturity and readiness in personal terms which we know so well as a principle in education but which is so frequently forgotten in the discussions of situations such as these.) Other problems arise from their inability to understand the internal structure of hierarchy because most schools these days are rather less formal in this regard than formerly. Therefore, the transition may well be difficult for these reasons. Others do not understand the nature or the politics of a situation. They do not understand either the

functions and purposes of organisations such as unions. Although unions have an active policy of induction and instruction for young people on their own admission, many fall short in this regard. Having collected their clues many union representatives do little more than occasionally rally people to meetings or issue documents and instructions on the expected support which will be offered but not often debated among employees.

Basic skills

Education systems are frequently under fire for not having produced people with the necessary basic skills. Indeed, the press in recent years has been very outspoken on the weakness of young people entering the workforce in the areas of literacy and numeracy. Did I say in recent years? If one knows enough history or has read enough literature, one is of course, aware that this has been the constant cry of every generation throughout history about the younger generation. As I have indicated, the evidence which is available does not readily support such contentions. The evidence I cite comes from field studies, the figures for achievement in schools, and personal observations. (Very often the letters I receive from university folk and from employers expressing a point of view about the ability of young people entering their spheres would make instructive reading for those outside my office because their own expression and the standard of their own literacy is marginal.) Even if some of the claims can be supported, I think it is necessary to take into account that the level at which employers are drawing from the available workforce is different from what it would have been twenty years ago. Many people previously in clerical positions who joined during the depression or immediately after the war, would not now be in such work. They would have graduated; they would be people who would be employed as teachers, as architects and as administrators at a higher level in business and industry. Young people who previously entered work as shop-assistants, as semi-skilled workers, are now moving into more skilled occupations. Inevitably then, the level from which most educational institutions and employers are drawing their employees or their students represents a much wider band of the whole spectrum of ability and attainment in our community. It is also fair to say that today more people in this, as in almost every other country, read and write and speak better than ever has been the case before.

One of the claims of our schools, of course, is that they no longer concentrate only on the three R's, and this is true. Far greater emphasis has been placed on the development of abilities in expression and in the facility for critical thinking and evaluation. These achievements, however, earn very few recommendations from employers. Indeed, many of the complaints of employers which focus on surliness or unwillingness to work until the rights and wrongs of the process or a course of action have been debated, are failing to recognize that they are now dealing with young people who have been encouraged to be more ready to express an opinion both at school and at home. If we are to breed a race of people who are more active in their thinking and their expression of values and attitudes, then we must expect that they will carry over these faculties into whatever they are doing, including the world of work. It may well be that employers have to recognize that they must adapt their expectations to some extent and most find time to listen to what

young people have to say if those qualities are to be capitalized upon and not merely to become a source of contention in this work situation. I recognize, of course, that no employer concerned with output or with dealing with his public can afford to indulge in major debate before every action, however minor, is taken. It may be appropriate to suggest, however, that some resolution of the problem might be found in explaining the employer's expectations for prompt action while offering the opportunity, once the employee has had adequate time to observe and reflect upon the value of his suggestion compared with the value of the current practice, to the employee express his views in the assurance that his opinions will be heard. Worker participation is a fact of future organisation.

The major criticism again and again however, is concerned with the lack of understanding displayed by new entrants of the nature and operation of industry and commerce. There is no doubt that this is a demonstrable fact. It may not, however, be an allowable criticism. Why *should* young people who have never been in commerce and industry be expected to know a great deal about such operations? Nor, I suggest, is it entirely reasonable to expect that the school should assume *all* responsibility for yet another area of knowledge or instruction (often society's answer to problems of this kind). That is not to say that schools may not contribute to this understanding, but I maintain that it is not the sole responsibility of the school. Parents and employers and other community agencies surely have a part to play and must be persuaded to accept that role.

It is frequently said that teachers are ill-equipped to assist young people greatly in this transition to the work area because few of them have had experience in the world of work away from school. This is probably less true today than it used to be, but it is still a fair comment. There are strong arguments, however, for having teachers and school counsellors who know pupils undertake a major share in the preparation of young people for the world of work. I am not entirely in favour of the suggestion that careers education could be conducted satisfactorily by people from outside the school coming to take over responsibility for that area of the program in the school. For one thing these people are not experienced in explaining to young people in terms appropriate to their level of understanding or in methods of presentation which are acceptable to, or appealing to, young people. Outside resources may well, however, be tapped by a team of teachers who have themselves been given some opportunity to become more familiar with the world of work outside the school and to assume the major responsibility for planning and conducting such programs in the school. I emphasise again that I think the school is not in the business of programing people to fit the external needs of the community (even if they can be predicted) but of advising them as well as possible on what is expected of them and perhaps assisting other agencies which share in this responsibility to participate in a better co-ordinated program to assist young people.

Most of you are aware of the other agencies which share the responsibility at present for offering careers advice or assisting in career selection. Whether or not these services are delivered at appropriate levels and at appropriate times is a matter I invite you to discuss. Whether or not the information is conveyed in forms which are attractive and readily accessible

is another question. Whether the services offered by the Commonwealth Employment Service, the Departments of Labour and Industrial Relations, of Careers Reference Centres are adequate or appropriate to the needs of our community and of the special groups with whom you are concerned is an important area for this seminar to consider. There is clearly a need for material on other than tertiary-oriented courses. Whether careers advising within schools is something which we must overhaul in its present forms or whether other kinds of service or careers education would be appropriate should also be questioned. It may be that some of you will favour releasing teachers not simply for the part-time careers advising with which some of you are familiar but for full-time work in organizing and implementing careers education in schools. How may this be done in your context? Should we conduct parent programs in the recognition that so often the destiny of young people depends mainly on the degree of understanding, support and ambition of their parents? What needs to be done to educate employers and union officials? What forms of personal counselling are indicated apart from job-counselling?

Whatever happens as a result of this conference I hope that everyone will carry away a better understanding of the scope and nature of the work which confronts us in general terms, as well as in terms of the special interest areas which you represent. We will not find a magic solution, we will not agree on the methods, but I trust we can agree on, and formulate aims for attempts to prepare young people in the transition from school to work, from dependence to individual satisfaction in adult status.

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CHAPTER 2

FUNCTIONAL LITERACY AND NUMERACY OF AUSTRALIAN 14 YEAR OLDS

A Report of an Investigation

Sid Bourke

A concern for literacy

Across the world, in recent years, there has been a growing concern for the achievement of literacy. This concern has been discussed not only with respect to developing countries in the Unesco report *Learning to Be* (Faure, 1972) but also within the developed countries, where it has commonly been assumed that the highest possible levels of literacy have existed. The recent reports from Britain *A Language for Life* (Bullock, 1975) and from the United States *Towards a Literate Society* (Carroll and Chall, 1975) reveal an awareness that there are substantial numbers of adults in these countries who cannot read. Moreover, it is thought that not insignificant numbers of students are leaving school each year with the skills of literacy insufficiently developed to enable them to read and write effectively for the remainder of their lives. The reports of the Australian Schools Commission (Karmel, 1973 and McKinnon, 1975) have acknowledged as a basic value, underlying the programs of primary and secondary schools in Australia, that all children should attain minimum standards of competence for life in a modern, democratic, industrial society. However, they do not acknowledge that a problem currently exists within Australian schools with regard to the achievement of literacy.

There is, nevertheless, an awareness, stemming from a variety of sources, that some children in Australia, because of specific learning problems and social, economic, ethnic, geographic, cultural or linguistic disabilities, may be failing to achieve an adequate level of competence in the basic skills of literacy and numeracy before they leave school at the end of the period of compulsory schooling. Yet very limited soundly based evidence is currently available on the nature and extent of this possible failure by some children to attain the basic skills associated with reading, writing and arithmetic, the possession of which is believed to be important for all Australian citizens.

The first phase of the Australian Studies in School Performance (the ASSP Project) conducted by the Australian Council for Educational Research sought to measure performance in reading, writing and number work of 10 and 14 year old students throughout Australia in October 1975. The Project does not provide information as to whether standards are falling and does not attempt to answer questions concerned with levels of adult literacy and

numeracy in Australia. However, in the case of the 14 year olds, the Project measured the performance of students at the end of approximately nine years of compulsory schooling and this measure is clearly related to adult literacy and numeracy in the very near future.

Assessing literacy

In the search for a suitable approach to the assessment of literacy and numeracy, a Unesco definition contained in a document, 'World Campaign for Universal Literacy' submitted to the United Nations General Assembly in May 1963 provided some guidance:

> A person is literate when he has acquired the essential knowledge and skills which enable him to engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning in his group and community, and whose attainments in reading, writing and arithmetic make it possible for him to continue to use these skills towards his own and the community's development and for active participation in the life of his country.

It should be noted that arithmetic is included in the above definition of 'literacy'.

While it must be acknowledged that there were many obstacles to be overcome in attempting to use this definition as a basis for the development of instruments to assess the attainment of specific knowledge and skills, it was believed to be of doubtful value educationally not to pursue the functional approach to literacy suggested by this definition. This approach made it essential that the assessment of literacy was done against criteria which were clearly recognized to be important. The criteria selected for testing necessarily reflect the test constructors' views of literacy and, although it may not be possible to achieve consensus of opinion on the criteria of literacy, it is hoped that the general public, teachers and other groups with particular interest in the products of the schools will view the criteria as consistent with their various understandings of the term 'literacy'.

Outside the school, literacy frequently implies the ability to negotiate the world of print that surrounds the man in the street. Thus, for some, literacy involves the ability to read a simple daily newspaper well enough to extract information for everyday purposes. For others, achievement of literacy means the ability to fill in the necessary forms to run a bank account, take out an insurance policy, rent or buy a house, get a driver's licence, or obtain unemployment benefits. Moreover, it might be claimed that within the social context a literate person must be able to read the instructions in telephone booths, railway carriages, laundromats, or along the road-side, and warnings in dangerous places such as railway yards, freeways, sub-stations or lifts where survival would be at stake. Thus it would be necessary for an assessment of literacy in the social context to take into consideration the nature of tasks of reading and writing which were required outside the school.

Inside the school, among people concerned with education, a literate person is one who is an independent reader and can work effectively from the text books and other instructional materials which are being employed at his age or grade level. Perhaps this indicates some justification for defining functional literacy in terms of an age or grade level, and the use of normative tests. However, the criterion-referenced approach which includes among other items of stimulus material, samples of prose from an appropriate school text was preferred. Further indicators of the achievement of an adequate level of performance in school-based activities are to know the number facts, and to carry out simple computational tasks. In addition, a student should be able to write simply and clearly a piece of descriptive or imaginative prose. Without such basic skills further learning at school is likely to prove both very tedious and very difficult.

The aims of the survey.

With this approach to the assessment of literacy and numeracy in mind, the aims of the inquiry were formulated and were stated to include the following:

1. To identify specific tasks and competencies associated with the basic skills of literacy and numeracy which children are expected to possess to enable them to participate successfully in the work of the school and to live and work effectively in Australian society.

2. To prepare appropriate performance tests to measure levels of competence in the basic skills of reading, writing and numeration.

3. To estimate with a high level of accuracy for Australia as a whole, and for each State in particular, the number of children who are failing to attain basic skills of literacy and numeracy as assessed by the tests of reading, writing and numeration.

4. To specify relationships between various other factors (age, grade, type of community, specific learning difficulties, ethnic origin, language of home, socio-educational level and sex) and the attainment of specific levels of competence in the basic skills of reading, writing and numeration.

The information required to meet the fourth aim was obtained by means of teacher and student questionnaires completed for each student tested. Thus information obtained about specific learning difficulties were teacher perceptions of problems and not necessarily the incidence of such problems in schools.

The samples

This Project was required to break new ground within Australia in the design of samples. No previous investigation had obtained evidence of educational achievement from both primary and secondary students in all Australian States and Territories and from schools of all types. Sampling by grade would have been less complex than sampling by age, however, different school entry and grade promotion policies in different parts of Australia mean that there is little comparability in grade levels between the States and estimates of performance across Australia would not be very meaningful. Sampling by age would have the advantages that the results for the States and Territories could be combined to give statistics for Australia overall. Sampling by age was used and the populations from which the samples were selected consisted of all students in normal schooling who were at one of the following age levels:

> *Age 10:00 to 10:11 years*, during the middle primary school period where the basic skills of literacy and numeracy, which influence to a major extent all further learning, should have been acquired;
>
> and
>
> *Age 14:00 and 14:11 years*, during the middle secondary school stage at a level immediately prior to the end of the period of compulsory schooling, where *all* students were still at school.

Two-stage stratified random sampling was employed, sampling first by schools and then by students within schools. In each State and Territory every student in normal schooling had an equal chance of being selected in the samples which were designed to consist of 1,000 students in 40 schools for each State and 500 students in 20 schools for each of the ACT and Northern Territory. Thus the designed sample was 7,000 students at each age level: the achieved samples were 6,628 and 6,247 ten and fourteen year olds respectively.

The State and Territory sub-samples were weighted according to the sizes of the ten and fourteen year-old school populations in each State or Territory to give results for Australia as a whole. As the sample design was a complex one, sampling errors based on simple random sampling assumptions were not appropriate and may have seriously underestimated the sampling errors of estimates (Ross, 1975). Sampling errors incorporating a correction factor for the design effect of the sampling used have been calculated.

Objectives, tasks and item development

The procedures employed in the development of the three tests of reading, writing and numeration involved four clearly defined steps. First, the objectives of testing in each area were laid down. Secondly, a list of tasks and competencies or sub-tasks within those tasks was prepared and

priorities assigned to both tasks and sub-tasks. Thirdly, items were prepared which were consistent with the stated objectives and which assessed performance on defined sub-tasks and these items were given a trial. Finally, items were selected using two criteria. First, they tested performance of an important sub-task, that is, they had strong face validity, and secondly, they had appropriate levels of difficulty which indicated the degree of competence considered necessary for the task. These procedures differed in several important respects from the approach to test construction and evaluation in education which has become traditional (see Tyler, 1949, Bloom *et al*, 1956, and BIoom, Hastings and Madaus, 1971) and would not have been possible in the time available if it were not for the reports prepared by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (Tyler, 1969, Merwin and Womer, 1969) in the USA.

Three dimensions of the objectives and associated tasks were used in designing a framework for the development of test items. These dimensions were the subject-matter (or content) of the item, the cognitive processes (or skills) involved in answering the item and the field of usage of the knowledge and processes acquired. The two major classifications in the usage dimension were social and classroom usages.

The tasks assessed and some results obtained by fourteen year olds for each of the Reading, Writing and Numeration Tests are now given. Information on the results obtained by the ten year olds is not given in this paper.

Reading

The tasks assessed in the Reading Tests were:

1. Using word attack skills.

2. Knowing and using a reading vocabulary.

3. Using conventions employed in written language as an aid to understanding.

4. Comprehending what is read, including the literal and inferential meaning of a word, phrase, clause, sentence or passage.

5. Using a variety of approaches to obtain information including:

   a. Scanning to locate specific information.

   b. Skimming to obtain an overall impression.

   c. Using directory skills to locate information.

   d. Reading a timetable to locate information.

   e. Using indexing skills.

The Reading Test was divided into five sections.

Section 1. One of the elements of reading and a component skill associated with an attack on words is a knowledge of the letters of the alphabet. Students were asked to write the six missing letters in the appropriate spaces:

a b c d e f _ h i j k l _ _ o p _ r s t _ _ w x y z

The percentages of 14 year-old students correct, incorrect and not attempting are shown in Table 1. Although a very high percentage of the 14 year-olds gave all six missing letters correctly, the 3.3 per cent of the sample who did not represent substantial numbers of 14 year-olds in normal schooling throughout Australia.

Table 1

Performance on stating letters of alphabet by students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Response type	% Correct
Correct responses	96.2
Incorrect responses	3.3
No attempt	0.5
Total	100.0

Section 2. In attempting to assess the proportion of students who could not read even very simple sentences, a series of five items, each presenting a sentence and four pictures, was used. The student was required to select the picture that was best described by the sentence. The sentences were:

Item 2. The boy saw a fish in the fish bowl.

Item 3. He is taller than his sister.

Item 4. He chose the biggest aeroplane.

Item 5. The three blocks are standing one on top of the other.

Item 6. The woman was surprised to see the horse inside.

Results on these items were very consistent in that only 1 per cent of students was not correct on each item. Scores on the five items as a group have been calculated and are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Scores on picture items in reading tests by students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Scores	Percentage*	Unweighted number
Identified non-readers	0.0	15
Zero	0.1	4
1	0.1	9
2	0.1	9
3	0.3	25
4	1.9	126
5	97.3	6,040
No attempt	0.2	19
Total	100.0	6,247

* *Weighted data used*

If it is accepted that 14 year-old students should be permitted one careless mistake when working under test conditions, only those who had fewer than four items correct would be considered to be unable to read simple sentences of this type. Under these conditions only 0.6 per cent of 14 year-old students could be classed as non-readers at this level. However, given the nature of the sample tested, even this small proportion represents approximately 1,500 students who probably leave school each year unable to read simple sentences.

Section 3. Underlying the ability to read there are skills associated with competence in the use of language which involve using rules of syntax at an informal or intuitive level to provide correctly constructed sentences in English.

The seven items used to test this competence are shown as follows:

Item 7. The news is / were / are good today.

Item 8. He has { going / go / to go } to school very early.

Item 9. Is it true that so many coconuts come { on / out / from } Fiji?

Item 10. They sold their house at last, { wasn't it / don't they? / didn't they }

Item 11. I have lost my pencil. May I use { your / of yours? / yours }

Item 12. In America { the rich / a rich / rich } often buy very large cars.

Item 13. The children { in the afternoon study never. / study in the afternoon never. / never study in the afternoon. }

On average, 98 per cent of 14 year-olds were correct on each item. The two items (Items 7 and 8) involving selection of the most appropriate verb forms gave the most difficulty. The results for this section of the test are given in Table 3. It was anticipated that students from non-English-speaking homes would perform far worse than other students on these items. With the exception of Item 7 this was not the case.

Table 3

Performance on skills of linguistic competence of students aged 14 years in Australian schools

	% Correct
Item 7	96
Item 8	97
Item 9	98
Item 10	98
Item 11	98
Item 12	98
Item 13	98

Table 4

Reading comprehension performance of students aged 14 years in English speaking countries*

	% Correct				
	Australia	England	New Zealand	Scotland	United States
Item 1	70	68	75	70	79
Item 2	90	87	94	90	88
Item 3	84	85	87	84	88
Item 4	53	60	53	51	61
Item 5	60	60	64	68	59
Item 6	81	76	87	79	80
Average	73	73	77	74	76
No. of students	6,247	3,087	1,955	1,964	3,503

* *Data for England, New Zealand, Scotland, and the United States adapted from Thorndike (1973: 137).*

Section 4. -To assess reading comprehension a passage and associated questions that had been previously used by Thorndike (1973) were chosen. Information of the performance of 14 year-olds in England, New Zealand, Scotland and the USA on these questions is available and presented with the Australian results in Table 4.

The passage used was similar to those commonly read in school text and reference books. It told of the formation of a volcano in Mexico in 1943 and it described the reactions of Mexican people to the event. The first two items involved the literal meaning of the passage and the remaining four items inferential meaning. The Australian students performed at a similar level to students in Britain but were below students in New Zealand and the USA.

Section 5. The final section of the Reading Test introduced a four-page newspaper from which students were required to find the answers to fourteen multiple-choice questions. In some cases students simply had to find a particular story in the paper, in other cases they had to find specific information in a story or advertisement and, for a few questions, interpretation of the meaning of words or phrases was required.

For the items which involved the task of using indexing skills to locate information and reading a road sign more than 90 per cent of the 14 year-olds answered correctly. On the other hand only about half the students were correct on an item involving the use of indexing skills using a keyword and on one of the items requiring use of directory skills to locate information. A quarter of the students were unable to comprehend the literal meaning of one apparently straightforward newspaper article. Performance on the variety of tasks assessed in this section varied considerably but, on average, slightly more than three quarters of 14 year-olds were able to answer correctly items associated with newspaper reading.

When teachers were asked whether each student in the sample needed and whether he received remedial instruction apart from normal classroom teaching, approximately 15 per cent of the 14 year-olds were thought to need remedial instruction but only about 2/5 of those needing remedial instruction were receiving it.

Writing

The following tasks were assessed in the Writing Tests:

1. Completing a form; writing name, address, signature and personal details.
2. Writing instructions.
3. Writing messages.
4. Writing captions and labels (10 year-old level).
5. Writing letters
   a. Writing personal letters;
   b. Writing requests for information;
   c. Writing an application for employment (14 year-old level).
6. Writing transcription (10 year-old level).
7. Writing imaginative prose.
8. Writing accounts of personal experience.
9. Writing to express opinions and attitudes (14 year-old level).
10. Writing reports.

It can be seen that there were two different types of items used to assess writing. These were:

1. Items which could be marked as 'right' or 'wrong' according to specific criteria used to assess whether a task was completed successfully. Some results for these items are given below.

2. Items involving personal or imaginative writing for which predetermined criteria could not be used. For these items each piece of work was impression-marked by two independent assessors who used a five-point grading system and aimed at a normal distribution of grades. Actual examples of students' work in responding to these items are given in the Item Report for this Project (Bourke and Lewis, 1976).

Each writing task took at least several minutes to complete and, as only 30 - 35 minutes were available for testing, not all students could be tested on each task. Three forms of the Writing Test were developed and one third of the 14 year-olds responded to each test.

Table 5

Performance on completion of form by students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Giving	% Correct	% Spelling error
Surname	99	0
First name	97	0
Sex	99	1
Date of birth	96	2 (month)
Country of birth	95	3
Home address	97	3
Postcode	97	-
School name	100	3
Signature	98	0
Number of students	1,853	

Form Completion. One task required students to complete a simple form giving some personal details. Results on this item are shown in Table 5 which also records percentages of students who made spelling errors. However, correct spelling was not required for a student's response to be considered correct.

Almost all the 14 year-old students had mastered this task although 4 - 5 per cent were incorrect on date and country of birth. Most of the students incorrect on country of birth gave the Australian State where they were born not the country.

Writing Messages. This task required students to write a personal message for a family member based on a spoken communication. The following statement which purported to be a communication heard over the telephone was read by the teacher to the students:

> This is John Spencer calling. I'm in an awful hurry. Something's come up. I want to leave a message for Betty. My name is John Spencer, she'll know who I am, (Spell the next word) S P E N C E R. (Pause) I have to go to hospital for some tests tonight. (Pause). Tell Betty that I shall meet her at the Post Office at 9 o'clock. Got that? The Post Office, 9 o'clock tonight. Thank you. Goodbye.

The following sub-tasks were identified and each student's successful or unsuccessful completion of each sub-task was recorded.

1. Giving the name of the person for whom the message was intended.

2. Giving the name of the person who left the message.

3. Giving the two important items of information contained in the message.

4. Using the third person in the message.

Within the family setting it was considered that successful completion of sub-tasks 2 and 3 above was sufficient for the task to be considered satisfactorily completed. The performance of 14 year-olds on this item is recorded in Table 6. Although more than a third of the 14 year-olds failed to name the person for whom the message was intended and more than a half failed to use the third person which was clearly appropriate for the task, about 90 per cent of the 14 year-old students were considered to have satisfactorily completed the task.

Table 6

Performance in writing telephone messages by students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Sub-task	% Correct
Naming person for whom message was intended (A)	63
Naming person who left message (B)	92
Meet at Post Office at 9 o'clock (tonight) (C)	90
Use of third person (D)	46
Message correct (B) and (C)	89
Number of students	2,112

Writing letters. The 14 year-old students were required to write three different types of letters:

1. A personal letter to a friend in hospital. This informal letter required only some expression of concern, which could be jocular, and a name or signature of some kind although performances on other sub-tasks (writing own address and a greeting) were also recorded. Almost all students (99 per cent) expressed concern, but only 93 per cent wrote a name or signature on the letter. The overall task was satisfactorily completed by 92 per cent of students.

2. A formal letter requesting information from a government authority. Students were required to state a return address, include a greeting, request the information and sign the letter in some way. One fifth of the students failed to give a return address and 5 per cent did not make the request. The overall task was satisfactorily completed by 74 per cent of students.

3. A letter of application for employment. Only half the 14 year-olds (and only 44 per cent of the males) completed this task satisfactorily by stating a return address, including a greeting, applying for a job and signing the letter.

The results obtained by 14 year-old students on these three different types of letters may be compared in Table 7.

Table 7

Performance on letter writing by students aged 14 years

Task	% Correct
Informal letter	92
Formal letter	74
Application for employment	50

Writing directions and reports. In two separate items students were asked to write directions related to a simple street map instructing how to go from one point to another and to write a report of an accident from a written and diagrammatic stimulus. About half the students completed the directions successfully and a third wrote a report without any significant omissions or inventions. Although their usefulness in the social context is obvious, it is clear that these are not tasks that large numbers of 14 year-olds could handle in written form.

Numeration

Although the majority of the numeration tasks were considered appropriate for both age levels, a few tasks were assessed only at the 14 year-old level.

Tasks assessed at both 10 and 14 year-old levels

1. Reading common measuring instruments.
2. Recalling basic addition and multiplication tables.
3. Using the four basic arithmetical operations with whole numbers.
4. Using the four basic arithmetical operations with common fractions.
5. Reading values from simple graphs and tables.
6. Using skills appropriate to living within the Australian economic system.
7. Performing calculations with measurements related to time.
8. Reading instruments for measuring time.

Tasks assessed at 14 year-old level only

1. Using the decimal system or notation.

2. Calculating quantitative characteristics of simple geometric objects.

3. Interpreting simple plans and maps.

Recalling basic tables. The four items in this group are shown in Table 8 which also includes information on the performances of the 14 year-old students on the items. It is clear that most students have handled these items competently. However, when 1 per cent represents more than 60 students in the sample and thus more than 2,500 students in each age group in Australia there are still large numbers of 14 year-old students who will probably leave school (approximately 10,000 students each year) unable to subtract and multiply by means of the basic tables and twice as many who will be unable to perform division at this level. Since these number facts form the basis of any working with numbers, it is suggested that students in this position will be seriously disadvantaged in their adult life in spite of the increasing availability and use of the pocket-sized electronic calculator.

Table 8

Performance on basic tables by students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Sub-task		% Correct
Item 10	9 + 6	99
Item 11	17 - 9	96
Item 12	7 x 6	96
Item 13	56 ÷ 7	92

Using the four operations with whole numbers. Four items which had been employed in the 1972 - 3 National Assessment to measure the performance of 9 and 13 year-olds in the USA were used. These items are shown, together with the results for the 13 year-olds in the USA and 14 year-olds in Australia, in Table 9.

Table 9

Performance on use of the four operations by students in Australia and the United States*

		% Correct	
		13 year-old United States	14 year-old Australia
Item 15**	38 + 19	94	94
Item 16	36 - 19	89	90
Item 17	38 x 9	83	80
Item 18	125 : 5	89	90

* *The USA results were obtained from the NAEP Newsletter, NAEP (1975).*

** *NAEP Mathematics Tests presented the items in tabular format, e.g., the division item was presented thus:* $\frac{5}{125}$

There is little to choose between the performances of the USA and the Australian students. Performance on the multiplication item was lower than the other items for both groups. The results suggest that 10 per cent of Australian students probably leave school each year unable to obtain the correct answer with any regularity when they need to subtract or divide at this level and up to 20 per cent are unable to multiply by nine accurately.

Other items, which tested use of the four operations in everyday life, gave results which indicated that approximately one quarter of the 14 year-old students were unable to perform this task. When they were asked to estimate the correct answer as well, student performance was lower. For all items in the Numeration Test the amount and complexity of reading required was reduced to a minimum and pictorial stimulus material was substituted.

Solving problems involving money. Considerable emphasis was placed on this task of using skills appropriate to living within the Australian economic system. The results on these items are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Performance on skills involving money by students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Item No.	Sub-task	% Correct
5	Solving problems with money using up to two operations	69
7	Calculating change from $1	95
23	Using subtraction to solve problems involving money	77
28	Calculating the return on simple investments	70
29	Solving problems with money where all amounts are less than $1	89
30	Solving problems with money where all amounts are less than $10	64
32	Reading a simple chart	72

Only on the two items (Item 7 and Item 29) where amounts not exceeding $1 were used, are the proportions of correct responses reassuring. Although it could be argued that Item 28 which required the calculation of the yearly interest on $900 at 10 per cent is remote from students' everyday experience, it is a very straightforward item which they would almost certainly have experienced in the course of their schooling. Item 23 was an advertisement which required only the subtraction of $2,960 from $3,202 and was answered correctly by fewer than 80 per cent of students. Item 30, which has the lowest proportion correct (64 per cent) in this group of items, required students to find the cost of items from a 'Take-Away' food shop when the total cost was $2.34. It was thought that this item would have been within the experience of 14 year-old students yet about one student in three did not obtain the correct answer.

Reading the time and calculating using time. The results on items testing this task are shown in Table 11. The finding that more than 10 per cent of 14 year-olds were unable to write the time shown on a picture of a watch face is a matter for concern.

Table 11

Performance on measurements related to time by students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Item No.	Sub-task	% Correct
2	Using addition and subtraction skills to solve problems involving time	83
8	Reading the time from a watch	89
19	Using subtraction to solve problems involving time	90
26	Solving simple problems involving speed	81

Using the four operations with common fractions. The results on the three items testing this task are shown in Table 12. The two items which attempted to relate fractions to everyday life had a higher level of performance than Item 4 which involved less familiar fractions. One student in five did not obtain the correct answer to Item 24 which required the calculation of 3/4 of 24.

Table 12

Performance on the four operations with common fractions by students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Item No.	Sub-task	% Correct
4	Adding and subtracting common fractions	63
20	Using multiplication or addition to solve problems met in everyday life	92
24	Using multiplication to solve problems met in everyday life	80

Reading common measuring instruments. For one item students were required to measure a nail 65 mm long by means of a ruler alongside it marked in millimetres. Ten per cent of the 14 year-olds did not give the correct measure. For the other item testing this task, students were asked to write the reading on a scale - 850 g - and more than 20 per cent were not correct.

CHAPTER 4

WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS: SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIP IN LEARNING A LIVING

J.A. Noble

> "I suppose she chose me because she knew my name; as I read the alphabet a faint line appeared between her eyebrows, and after making me read most of *My First Reader* and the stock-market quotations from *The Mobile Register* aloud, she discovered that I was literate and looked at me with more than faint distaste. Miss Caroline told me to tell my father not to teach me any more, it would interfere with my reading."

I began with this rather lengthy reading from Harper Lee's *To Kill a Mockingbird* because I think it is a salutary reminder that learning is not the exclusive preserve of schools and it is a misplaced desire for professional status which prevents teachers from relinquishing the quite deeply embedded attitude that it is. My task today is to focus on Work Experience Programs for Secondary Students as a joint Community - School enterprise in education. It is, of course, something which *cannot* be undertaken *without* the cooperation of the community, particularly the commercial/industrial sector. I would venture to say that work experience has arisen because of the recognition of the limitations of formal schooling in achieving a number of highly desirable educational objectives. In addition, I would see Work Experience as a way of building bridges across the ever-widening gulf between schools and their communities, and of fostering a sense of community responsibility in education.

Work Experience Programs belong in the context of action learning programs. I see them as having a much wider application than just something for the "special" student. Secondary schools are *not* complete learning environments. They are quite specific and restricted learning environments, and no further addition to an already overloaded in-school curriculum can alter that fact. While the current Board of Secondary School Studies (Queensland) statement of the aims of secondary education has many laudable things to say about education for community life, it is unlikely that these objectives can be achieved solely within the somewhat custodial and protective environment of the school. The best place for education *about* the community must surely be *in* the community, although as a recent OECD paper points out,

Reading values from simple graphs and tables. A histogram with a scale value of 1,000 was read correctly by 88 per cent of 14 year-old students.

Calculating areas and volumes. The 14 year-old students were required to calculate the area of a 4 x 4 rectangle and to identify one of three other rectangles as having the same area. This sub-task was completed successfully by 86 per cent of students. However, when the same students were given drawings and were asked to state how many cubes 1 cm x 1 cm x 1 cm would fit into a rectangular prism 2 cm x 3 cm x 2 cm, less than 60 per cent gave the correct answer. These results suggest that most 14 year-old students had some facility with areas but almost one half are unable to work successfully with the more complex concept of volume.

Using the decimal system of notation. The 14 year-old students were asked to indicate the relative magnitude of numerals containing two-place decimal fractions and 86 per cent did so successfully. However, only 76 per cent were able to subtract 10.8 from 12.4 when these figures were used in a problem related to everyday life. This result suggests that approximately one quarter of the students could leave school unable to perform reliably basic tasks of this type.

Interpreting simple plans and maps. The 14 year-old students were asked to use the information on a map to find the approximate distance between two points on the map. A scale was provided so that students could measure the distance between the points with a pencil or any similar object if they wished and then place the pencil alongside the scale. The two points were joined by a straight road. The students were required to select the correct alternative of five offered. The task was performed successfully by 79 per cent of 14 year-old students and only 1 per cent did not attempt the item. It is, perhaps, surprising that 20 per cent of the students selected an incorrect response for this item.

Teachers were also asked whether students needed and whether they received remedial instruction in number work. As for reading, approximately 15 per cent of the 14 year-olds were thought to need remedial instruction but only about 1/5 of those needing remedial instruction in number were said to be receiving it. It seems that, apart from normal classroom teaching, remedial instruction in number is not provided as often as is the case for reading.

Handicaps and learning problems

Evidence of these problems as perceived by teachers, was collected through the Teacher Questionnaire. A summary of some of these perceptions is given in Table 13.

Table 13

Teacher perceptions of problems of students aged 14 years in Australian schools

Problem	% Incidence
Suspected or known defective vision but does *not* wear glasses	1.2
Suspected or known hearing defect but does *not* wear a hearing aid	1.3
Frequent or prolonged absence from school	19
Lethargic or slow in movement	13
Restless or very restless	16
Rejected, avoided or tolerated by other students	19
Frequently demands attention	5
Unable to co-operate with peers	2.3
Isolates himself from others	1.7
Extremely shy or timid in class	2.9
Does not understand English sufficiently to cope with normal classroom lessons	5
Difficulty in using a pen or pencil for writing	2.2
Difficulty in following verbal instructions	7
Difficulty in copying written work accurately	8
Difficulty in spelling simple words	12
Difficulty with reversals in reading	4

The relationships between these teacher perceptions and actual incidence of physical handicaps in the community would be of interest as would their relationship with performance on the tests. Some of these relationships will be investigated and reported in the next phase of this Project.

Differences in performance between student group

Female students were found to have a consistently higher level of performance than male students for the Reading and Writing Tests but not for the Numeration Test at the 14 year-old level. For the Numeration Test the

male students performed at least as well as the females and had a higher level of performance for some tasks. In comparison, metropolitan/non-metropolitan differences in performance were small and inconsistent. There was a slight tendency, however, for students at metropolitan schools to have higher performances on the Reading and Numeration Tests. Differences in performance on the Writing Tests were less clear with the non-metropolitan students better at some tasks.

Students at Government schools had a lower level of performance than others and students at Independent schools normally had the highest performance. The level of performance of students at Catholic schools was, for most items, between the performances of students at Government and Independent schools. These differences could be due to a variety of factors including, as other studies indicate, the cultural and socio-economic levels of the homes from which the students have been drawn.

There were some consistent differences in the performances of students with different language backgrounds. Students from homes where only English or both English and a North-European language were spoken generally had the highest levels of performance on the tests and students from homes where no English was spoken had the lowest level. There was less consistency in the performances of students from homes where English and South-European or an other language were spoken. Generally, the levels of their performances tended to be between the two extremes with the other language group below the South-European language group in performance.

Concluding remarks

This Project was undertaken to measure the reading, writing and numeration of 10 and 14 year-old students and to collect information on teacher perceptions of the nature and extent of any learning difficulties experienced by individual students in normal schooling throughout Australia. It is merely a first step, albeit an important one, in the study of mastery of the basic skills and in relating any failure to achieve mastery to the incidence of specific problems. It is considered that successful performance of the tasks identified and tested is necessary for normal life in a modern, industrial, democratic society and that 14 year-old students who have not mastered the tasks will be seriously disadvantaged in their adult lives both at work and within the community generally. Whether successful performance of these tasks is sufficient for a normal life in Australia is, of course, another question.

* * * * *

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CHAPTER 3

WORLD TRENDS IN VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION AND EMPLOYMENT OF THE HANDICAPPED

Kenneth T. Jenkins

> "Vocational rehabilitation services should be made available to all disabled persons, whatever the origin and nature of their disability and whatever their age, provided they can be prepared for, and have reasonable prospects of securing and retaining, suitable employment".

I am quoting from Recommendation 99 of the International Labour Office (ILO) which was adopted in 1955. Perhaps I should recommend the International Labour Office publication *Basic Principles of Vocational Rehabilitation of the Disabled*; it is a comprehensive document. All around the world from 1955, ILO Recommendation 99 has been taken as the charter on vocational rehabilitation of the disabled.

However, I believe that there is a need for some revision of ILO Recommendation 99 although its basic principles have not changed. I am concerned about the words in the quotation "reasonable prospects of suitable employment". Our responsibility is to *all* the disabled not just to those disabled who can make vocational services economically viable. The literal interpretation of that part of ILO Recommendation 99 is that the philosophy it proclaims has precluded the very severely handicapped from *all* forms of development, including work potential. Vocational rehabilitation services are not just a successful financial investment - *they are an investment in people*.

I am reminded of a recent statement by the Dutch Prime Minister: "People are not of more value because they achieve more in an economic sense". "We may now be in the time of the most rapid change in the whole evolution of the human race, either past or to come ....." J.R. Platt. In the field of vocational rehabilitation changes in all areas of human activity are rapidly taking place, and this is particularly so in the labour relations and social welfare fields. "The concepts that have dominated generations of mankind, authority, freedom, economic progress, social justice, have been caught up in a movement and nobody knows when this will end" - Dr Anton Heering.

It is remarkable how, in the richer countries at least, in just a few years the importance and value of work for the individual and for society have been relativized. Even as recently as in the sixties our society was typified by a Dutch sociologist as a *system of work*. Economic activity determined the main content of society and having a job to a large extent determined a person's status. It is far from me to say that this characterization is quite obsolete. But on many points the image of our Western society as a *system of work* shows cracks that cannot be removed and tend to increase in size and significance. What are those cracks? I will mention the most important ones.

a. Leisure time has become more desirable in the eyes of many people, since income from working has become sufficient for their livelihood and even in many cases for some luxury.

b. In these days many spiritual ideas are going the rounds which attach diminished value to material welfare and stress the value of creative or recreational activities that have no direct economic value. The "hippies" are partly representative of these ideas; eastern religions contribute to them. Recently the World Council of Churches started a campaign for a new style of life of which a certain material austerity is an essential element. It needs no comment that all this is conducive to a different evaluation of economic activity.

c. The reports of the so-called "Club of Rome" have widely spread uncertainty and even some suspicions about the role of modern production. Two elements are particularly emphasized: the increasing pollution of air, soil and water by our industries and industrial products, and the increasing exhaustion of raw materials as a consequence of the rapid growth of industry. From this statement the conclusion may easily be drawn that a good deal of our present work is a danger for the future of mankind.

d. The fourth crack is the persistent and increasing unemployment. This plague forces people to reflect upon the value of work in gainful employment. Is this really essential for everybody's status and happiness or may one think of a future society in which at least part of the population are exempted from economic activities but nevertheless are maintained by the community?

e. No wonder that, partly as a resultant of the aforementioned forces, partly perhaps spontaneously, there is a search going on for a deeper understanding of the significance of human life. In this context the emphasis

on a person's participation in economic activity as the foundation of his status is more and more being assailed. The same applies to the still prevailing cultus of competition, success and position on the labour market.

Overlooking the various forces that relativize the value of work in present society - again, in the richer countries, in general not in the Third World - one is tempted to think that the handicapped had better refrain from endeavours to take part in gainful employment. However, this would be a false conclusion. For gainful employment is still generally regarded as the normal occupation of those who are responsible for the living of themselves and their dependants, taking up the greater part of their lives and giving shape to their social responsibilities. As long as this situation exists, the possibility of taking part in employment will rightly be desired by many handicapped people, as a condition for their social integration and for acquiring maximum equality of status. This is all the more true as other fields of life are closed to them due to their handicap. I am thinking for instance of sports, artistic achievements or social life. For all these reasons it is absolutely necessary for them and for society as a whole to (continue to) work for their admission to employment inasfar as they are reasonably capable of work.

On the other hand, the symptoms of the diminishing relative value attached to work should warn us against spasmodic efforts to enter gainful employment. And particularly we should warn ourselves against an exaggerated appreciation of employment as the only possibility to make life meaningful. Perhaps we should take the view that all efforts must be aimed at increasing the *freedom* of the handicapped, by widening their choice of opportunities. This should by no means imply the right to choose the easiest way: just because of their fundamental equality the handicapped have also to bear their *responsibilities* towards other people and the community at large. But we should as much as possible prevent the situation of a handicapped person using up his last forces in a strenuous effort to perform a job which is too heavy for him, until he completely collapses. For this reason warning systems should be built into the employment process and opportunities created to quit working in time, if this threatens to harm the person's health.

As regards other options instead of a paid job we may, of course, in the first place point to sheltered (or, as I prefer to say - social) employment. In addition to this we should also think of non-paid creative or socially useful activities, within the framework of the family, or for a group or association, for a church, a political party or a residential area committee. In all those fields there is much useful "work" to be done for which there is always an insufficient number of volunteers. Of course, in many cases special arrangements have to be made for this, requiring some imagination and inventiveness. But the people directly concerned, their environment and the community at large may be expected to effectuate this.

The old paternalistic way of running an enterprise can no longer be tolerated and is, therefore, doomed to disappear. *Management by Employees*, *Worker Participation* and *Industrial Democracy* are the new ideals and these ideals are finding their expression in varying ways in most parts of the world.

These new ideals have created the desire for participation in making of decisions. They stress the dignity and rights to the personal development of the individual worker. Dull work tasks, simple routine jobs are increasingly looked at with a critical eye, and the new words are *Job Enlargement*, *Job Encouragement*, *Job Consultation* and *Job Satisfaction*.

In the more developed countries what Heering calls "Industrial Democracy" has already produced and is producing a situation where economic motives in commercial enterprises are interwoven with social, cultural and spiritual aspirations. In this trend of thinking an enterprise may, as an economic organisation, have as its main purpose to produce or to tender services and nevertheless create room for activities that, though not efficient from a purely economic point of view, contribute to the effectiveness of the enterprise as a *social organisation*, in which the human being is the centre of interest. If higher outputs, economic growth and material wealth are no longer regarded as the exclusive aims of our production system, it stands to reason that the position of the handicapped person in relation to gainful employment will sooner or later be affected by this new outlook. If seriously believe that it is the *total human being* that counts, we can no longer judge the employability of a person by his quantitative productivity only. Other factors must come into account, including such things as sense of responsibility and loyalty. Total responsibility means among other things, responsibility not only for job satisfaction, but responsibility for the provision of cultural, recreational and leisure development.

Individuals may have handicaps of two distinctly different origins. One kind of handicap is that inherent in the individual's physical, mental, emotional, educational and social make-up. The other is imposed by society through lack of understanding or lack of information. Of the two kinds of handicap, that imposed on the individual by society is in most cases more disabling and fundamentally crippling than that which arises out of the individual's make-up. In the sense that no one is perfect, every human being is defective in countless ways. In employment terms, no individual could ever be considered the all-purpose candidate. If he is trained and capable as a physician, he is apt to be a poor risk as a labourer. A labourer would probably be a poor lawyer. In some cases an individual may, in fact, qualify at two or three of these, but be unable to perform other jobs. These disabilities are partly because the man is incapable for doing the job; partly because, though capable, he has not acquired the necessary education and skills; and partly because he does not want to earn his living this way, or perhaps in any way.

In job placement terms, every individual carries built-in personal handicaps for most of the jobs in this world. These handicaps may conveniently be graded as physical, mental, emotional, education, social. This breakdown provides one approach to the problem of jobs for the handicapped.

a. *Physical handicaps*

Most types of work have physical requirements. Some requirements are obvious; ability to report for work

regularly and on time, to perform the movements and manipulations required, etc. The one-legged man may be seriously handicapped for any job requiring extensive walking.

b. *Mental handicaps*

Many types of work require certain levels of brainpower. A retardate may not become an accountant or a physicist. On the other hand, a high level of intelligence may be positively disabling for simple, routine, repetitive and other work.

c. *Emotional handicaps*

Individuals may be temporarily totally disabled by emotional illness, or may function over extended periods of time with a residue of mental illness. Jobs of extreme mental pressure may be ruled out (but the pressure-tolerence level is higher than most people believe). During the acute stages, any job may be ruled out.

d. *Educational handicaps*

Lack of the required education disables an individual for specific professional, technical, artistic, or skilled positions.

e. *Social handicaps*

Persons may be disabled for certain positions by nature of the social requirements of the job. Inability to speak English, for example, might be disabling when applying for a job in a restaurant in Australia. Men are disqualified for the job of women's bath attendant, etc.

These are the *inherent disabilities*. That is, they arise directly out of the condition. Correction of these disabilities, to the extent correctible, is the province of the professional. The man with one leg receives medical and prosthetic care, with physical and occupational therapy and the more sophisticated technical aids. He may thus reduce his limitations and be able to undertake a wider variety of jobs. Similarly, professional efforts may ameliorate the disabling effects of mental retardation, mental illness, lack of education and social disabilities.

For each of the above categories of disability, there exists another kind of handicap which is not inherent in the disability but is imposed by employers or by society. These *imposed handicaps* are disabling because, society, through its employment managers, decrees that such individuals may not perform certain types of jobs. This is the very reason why the Royal Perth Hospital has an Employment Officer as a member of staff but, as far as I am aware, this situation does not exist in other hospitals in Australia.

a. The physically handicapped may be kept from certain jobs by the fact that the physical condition exists, rather than because of physical inability to perform. Thus, the one-legged man may not be permitted to drive a truck, even though he is physically able to do so efficiently and safely. This is an imposed handicap.

b. The mentally retarded person may be under employed because the employer does not want to have him around, he thinks the job requires more mental capability than it actually does (the latter frequently occurs).

c. The mentally ill person may be under sufficient control to perform exceedingly well over an entire career, but may be kept from getting a suitable job because of the fact that he was once in a psychiatric hospital or is undergoing psychiatric treatment. He is a victim of the employer's prejudices.

d. The educationally backward may be kept from certain jobs by arbitrarily imposed educational requirements which are more stringent than dictated by the actual need of the job. In Adelaide this situation constitutes the biggest single obstacle in placement.

e. The socially handicapped may be kept from a wide variety of jobs through prejudice based on race, religion, colour, national origin, sex, age, etc. In one sense, the entire category is an imposed category; one may argue that there is no inherent reason why a man should not become a women's bath attendant.

These socially-decreed limitations on a man's ability to get a job have ramifications which go beyond any simple turndown for a specific job. The individual, the employer, and ultimately through Government, all society are affected.

The individual feels the immediate and most devastating effect. Our society demands a degree of social usefulness. We place value on the productive, artistic, or service contributions the individual makes to society. For most individuals, these contributions must be made and compensated for through wages. When wages are repeatedly denied, the individual loses his ability to cope with the demands of the employment market. Enforced idleness, especially out-of-touch idleness, sometimes acts in a way analogous to total sensory deprivation. The result may be disorientation, hallucination, an unusual disability. The effect is to create new physical and emotional disorders with which the professional has to cope.

The loss to society is less obvious, but multiplied by the number of individuals on social service benefits because of socially imposed limitations, the effect is still great. The most direct effect is on taxation since in our

society we try to prevent starvation on utter privation. A second effect is the increase in the number of second-class citizens, because, while we deny jobs on the one hand, we make it clear on the other that the unemployed disabled are qualitatively different from the rest of us. Society rests uneasily with a split position of this kind. Eventually, something is done about it. Sometimes employers take action themselves in the light of new knowledge, new technological developments, or government takes a hand through new social legislation. As a consequence, the employer's freedom of action has already been abridged by laws relating to employment of racial and religious minorities, older workers, women, union members and others. Each new law is an attempt by society to remove the arbitrary barriers to getting and holding the job of one's choice. When individual employers fail to respond society forces their hands.

The employer is not only affected by the imposition of legal sanctions, but through arbitrary and self-imposed requirements he restricts his own freedom of choice. He is, in fact, reducing his labour market through the use of irrelevant criteria. Occasionally, he is actually downgrading his workforce by a standard which eliminates the better workers. In one case, a hosiery manufacturer, in requiring a standard of 20/20 vision (Snellen chart), was losing the myopic applicant. Subsequent tests proved that near-sightedness was an asset for one common job, that of looper. The employer knew that keen vision was needed, but used common sense instead of controlled study.

While the individual and society are effected by imposed disabilities, the employer is the one who is in a position to take effective action to eliminate the restrictions. He does so by examining each applicant on his merits, in the light of the real demands of the available job opening. It will rarely occur that the employer is faced with the demand that he take on someone who is incapable of performing the duties of the job because of handicaps inherent in the disability. Few will argue that a paraplegic should not arbitrarily be ruled out for the job of police radio dispatcher because of a requirement that all members of the police force meet certain physical standards.

The employer will receive help in two directions. The medical and paramedical professionals, the educationists and others will assist in determining the true handicaps that arise out of the specific disabilities of the individual. The remainder are socially-imposed, or more narrowly, employer-imposed. Thus identified, the employer is in a better position to eliminate these barriers. His second source of help lies in society itself. Through the sanctions of the people, in a great many ways other than the passage of law, situations are trimmed, adjusted and fitted to the realities of life in today's world. As these adjustments creep into our social systems, the employer is able, even pressured, to adopt them in his employment practices.

The employer is not entirely free in these matters. He may not, in the long run, ignore the needs of society, because continual failure to provide jobs for those deemed worthy inevitably leads to the passage of laws. Thus, for any group of disabled, the employer is first approached by the disabled themselves, then by volunteers who join together to assist certain

kinds of disabilities, and finally, if these efforts are not enough, government joins in through imposition of legal sanctions. The movements relating to the employment of the physically, mentally or emotionally disabled, or the educationally handicapped, or the socially disadvantaged, are still in the realm of voluntary action by employers. If the needs continue to be unanswered, laws will follow.

Typical employer reactions often will be to fight such laws on the reasonable grounds that they limit his freedom to staff his operation with those he feels are most able to perform the jobs. On this basis and on the basis that such laws are socialistic or inefficient, the employer resists. If legislation needs to be introduced, the time for introduction is now, while we are economically buoyant. There would be reduced hope of such legislation reaching the Statute Book in a depressed economy.

The employer needs to sort out those of his standards which properly reflect the needs of the job, and discard the rest. It is just in this area that laws, in their uniform application of justice, have difficulty in distinguishing between true limitations and socially-imposed barriers. The law is apt to prevent either kind of discrimination.

Such laws may be closer than we realize. There are criteria for business and industry to note. In England, there is a registry of disabled, from which employers of more than twenty persons must by law draw three per cent of their new employees. In the Federal Republic of Germany, employers with more than thirty employees have a six per cent quota with the imposition of a fine of D.M. 100 per month if the quota is not met. The money collected in fines goes to a fund for providing vocational services and sheltered employment for the handicapped. However, the vast majority of experts condemn the quota system as a method of job placement for the handicapped.

Traditionally, the only avenues for employment of the handicapped have either been open industry or sheltered (social) employment. In Australia this is still almost totally true. However, in the last decade, and particularly in the last five years there have developed in many parts of the world extensions beyond these traditional areas of employment. Even within the existing sheltered employment agencies in Australia there is a need for much greater diversification of activity of tasks performed. In the main, agencies confine themselves to a sub-contract situation and to a sub-contract situation of a very simple repetitive type only. Certainly in Australia there has been little new and innovative.

One of the modern developments which is proving a great success, particularly in the United Kingdom is the *Enclave System*. To my knowledge there is no real Enclave System in Australia, although something very near it is taking place in Sydney. The Enclave System has certain varieties, but basically it is a system where an ordinary industrial or commercial firm contracts with a sheltered employment agency to undertake the whole or a portion of its industrial work. The work is undertaken in the premises of the commercial firm using that firm's equipment and power, and the sheltered employment agency simply undertakes to provide the labour at a contract price

and additionally provides the supervision for that labour. In most cases in the United Kingdom where the Enclave System is in practice within an industrial setting, it is only a part of the industrial process which is undertaken by the handicapped. Further it is a system where the sheltered employment client is in the main thought to be a terminal case, although there is a little movement to outside industry in the United Kingdom.

Another relatively recent development is in the Netherlands where agencies concerned with aid for the handicapped undertake a complete public service for a City or Municipal Authority. This entails such work as the maintenance and laying out of public parks.

Perhaps one of the most exciting experiments is taking place in Sweden. The experiment has necessitated a tri-partite marriage between the Swedish Employer's Federation, the Trade Unions and the Government. It is not an Enclave System but is a system whereby handicapped people are placed in industry and receive full wages for their work, even though his or her assessed productive capacity is well below normal standards. The experiments in Sweden have been conducted with approximately 6,000 handicapped people and at this stage appears to be very successful. The success, however, depends on the complete cooperation of the Government, the Employers and the Trade Unions. It also depends on a realistic work assessment as to the productivity of the handicapped person.

It works in the following way. Assuming that John Jones is assessed at 60 per cent productive, he is none the less paid at a wage level of 100 per cent, and the employer receives the 40 per cent subsidy from the Government. An important factor of this system is that the client is unaware of his or her percentage assessment. Further, on the job productive capacity is reviewed from time to time. As a matter of interest in Sweden, in addition to the 6,000 mentioned, there are a further 35,000 handicapped people in Sheltered Employment Services. Sweden has approximately four million fewer people than Australia, yet at today's date, we only have 13,000 engaged in sheltered employment and activity centres combined.

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"The often disjointed, confusing 'reality' outside the school must be explained coherently inside the school, in a relatively calm and removed manner."[1]

My argument is that we need to help students learn a living by getting adults to show their lives, (and not just their workaday lives) their successes and failures, their dreams and frustrations. Vicarious learning and living per TV actually contribute to that dissociation which is a major maladaptive trend in our society. Students need to be able to get outside the rather artificial social structure of the school and form new relationships with adults in society, to learn from actual interaction and involvement with others, to take advantage of the extraordinary diversity of human stimuli, particularly in the workplace, but overall to have access to as many different people, beliefs and practices as possible.

Community Service projects and protracted field work in either traditional subject areas or in integrated studies are extremely important aspects of action learning programs. However, given the importance of work in our society, work being a central part of the sense of identity and status, Work Experience Programs may well be the most significant. Work Experience Programs allow students to study the life of their community as it is reflected in the workplace. It allows them to test and analyse reality and to play roles and to experiment. Schools are the principal formal institution of society, intended to bring youth to adulthood, yet they tend to be cognitive, individualistic and to hold students in dependent relationships. They are far from the ideal place to build identity and self-esteem, responsibility and maturation. Work Experience Programs, I should emphasise, are not just in-service vocational guidance programs. They aim at nothing less than self-concept development, with the stress on affective learning elements in human relationships and human values.

Outcomes of Work Experience

It may be as well, at this stage, to spell out in further detail the outcomes for the student which can be expected from Work Experience. My listing is a synthesis of overseas and Australian experience, verified by our own program at Newmarket State High School. They are as follows:

a. The students will meet a group of people different from those of their usual school and social contacts, and will see themselves in a relationship of co-operation and subordination in the social structure of the working group. They will have the opportunity to practise relevant social skills outside the student peer group.

b. The students will value the time school provides for self-discovery and discovery of the adult world without the necessity for irrevocable commitment.

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1. *The mutual enrichment of school and community.* OECD Observer, 71, August, 1974.

c. The students will acquire a feeling of greater self-directedness and personal responsibility through adoption of a more adult role. Even though they may not act more responsibly, they will feel as if they are responsible.

d. The students will question for themselves the relative value of jobs, thus contributing to the development of their own set of values.

e. The students will experience the demands, disciplines and routines of work; the demand for punctuality; length of working hours in relation to breaks; the demand for productivity; the demand for involvement of self in customer and public relations; the willingness to offer service; the repetitious nature of much work; the unpleasant conditions of some work - physical fatigue, headaches, heat, dirt and grease; and the demands of playing a particular working role in terms of dress and speech.

f. The students will acquire a knowledge of the management structure of their place of employment and will be able to identify favourable and unfavourable aspects of relations between labour and management: decision-making; employee acceptance of responsibility for the success of the enterprise; the role of unions where appropriate; the degree to which employees see a difference between the employer's interests and their own.

g. The students will be able to identify aspects of school learning experiences which they regard as relevant and irrelevant to the world of work, and will seek areas where more study is required. Some students will gain the incentive to continue their high school education further.

h. The students will know more of the nature of occupations in which they are interested, and more of the entry requirements of those occupations, opportunities for in-service training, incentives and opportunities for promotion, and intrinsic rewards and satisfactions.

i. The students will be able to specify ways in which their preconceptions of a particular occupation may have changed, either favourably or adversely.

j. The students will be more aware of their real abilities and interests. The students will be able to identify those ideas as to their own, and those which are derived from significant others, such as parents.

k. The students will perceive more clearly those areas of work which are closed to them, and those which could become open, and which aspects of themselves need to be changed to effect this.

Work Experience and the special student

Thus far I have tended to emphasise Work Experience for all, partly because I really think that it is important that all students have the opportunity and partly because I do not wish anyone to gain the impression that Work Experience is a way of 'patching up' bad school programs.

Some teachers, on first hearing about Work Experience, embrace it as a golden opportunity to empty their classrooms of the 10B6's and 10C7's who are making their lives a misery. This is not to deny the present Work Experience programs being conducted or planned with such students or the Grade 11 non-academic group. What I am saying is that the idea that "They'd be better off at work", may be far from the truth, and a shirking of the school's responsibility to these students. In many cases their pattern of maladjustment at school will be duplicated on the job (truancy, lateness, aggressive behaviour, incompetence, irresponsibility) creating new problems for the school. Their performance in Work Experience will be one more index of their total alienation. The school is likely to be confronted more urgently than ever with the needs of the students.

This is not true of all 'special' students of course, and the initial euphoria at getting out of school may hide the real problems these students will have. It is up to the school to use Work Experience to confront them with reality, for example, that for them, vocational *choice* may be irrelevant in the face of economic survival, for they may have to come to terms with whatever is available. There seems to be sufficient evidence that underlying patterns of delinquent behaviour is the perspective that the young person concerned is locked into an endless 'present' which fate has decreed to be hopelessly insecure, with narrow stereotypes about what the future might possibly hold. Thus current academic failure may be expected to be repeated at work. Conversely, people who expect to fill future roles sucessfully will work to do so. Work Experience programs for the disadvantaged student can create a lot of work for the counsellor.

Community participation

Teachers frequently express cynicism or skepticism as to the involvement of business or unions, depending upon their leanings either to the left or the right. I must say that personally, I have found very keen interest and cooperation from both quarters and indeed from the community at large.

First, it is in the community's own interests that people become involved in the Work Experience Programs. Neff (1968) has pointed out that it is at school that the child learns the difference between work and play

and acquires a work personality; including the elements of concentration; emotional response, especially to authority; cooperation and competition with peers; the meaning and values association with work; rewards and sanctions for achievement and non-achievement; and the emotions associated with being productive. Some learn to be anxious in the face of demands for productivity, aggression, or social naivety. Most, through lack of contact with work as it really is, learn to be unfamiliar with work and work standards. The community needs to counter the restricted view of work that school provides, if it wishes to ease many of the problems which students encounter in the transition from school to work.

As things stand, many businesses include in their staff training programs, remedial modules, the costs of which are ultimately passed on to consumers. I would suggest that Work Experience Programs, by providing the student with a real (genuine) context reason for learning the basics, other than "doing it for marks or for the teacher", may go some way to overcoming this problem. We have found that many businessmen view Work Experience Programs as means of improving the quality of High School graduates, thereby reducing training costs, cutting down on occupational mobility and waste, and of keeping the education system in touch with their needs.

Others see Work Experience Programs as an avenue for recruitment by attracting the 'right' people into their field. Associated with this is the 'image building' aspect, either to promote a specific company image and as a general public relations exercise, or to promote the image of a particular occupation. The latter aspect, I know, concerns the automotive electrical industry in Queensland, and also business in general. Many Queensland businessmen are concerned at the poor image of commerce and industry among students, and business involvement with Work Experience for students and Work Observation for teachers results from this.

While business and industry may become involved with Work Experience out of self interest, many managers and workers quickly recognize the value of Work Experience to the school and the student. Most men involved with the Newmarket project felt that Work Experience was of equal benefit to themselves and the participant students. There are many people of goodwill who are community and education minded who are only too keen to play a part in education, once invited and shown how. I only wish the public service sector was as keen to cooperate as the private sector. In dealing with bureaucracies, getting to the right man, who is able and willing to make a decision can be difficult and the disinterested or cautious, fearful response is only too familiar.

Work Experience and employers

The Work Experience Program may have outcomes for employers which they either do not see immediately, or perhaps recognize, as important, which educators may value highly. Among these would be the following:

a. To enable employers to become more aware of the problems students have in adjusting to the transition from school to work and as a result to become more tolerant of school leavers undergoing this adjustment.

b. To enable employers to become better informed as to the general aims of secondary education: specifically to know that aims related to world citizenship, civic responsibility, human relations, self-awareness and self-realization are seen by educators as of equal importance to those relating to vocational preparation and economic self-sufficiency.

c. To enable employers to feel that, in participating in a Work Experience Program, they are contributing an educational service to the community.

d. To make employers aware that school leavers can legitimately be expected to experiment with a number of occupations before settling on a definite career.

e. To make employers more aware of their role in vocational training on the job.

For the community in general we can say that Work Experience helps the community do something constructive about *accountability*. It allows *Community Involvement* in education to rise above the level of oratory, where it tends to be at the moment. It can also be the thin end of the wedge for a greater community voice in the school curriculum and break down barriers that exist on both sides (after all you don't just 'drop in' at the bank to see what's going on!).

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CHAPTER 5

DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT

K.W. Ryan

In 1973, Australia ratified ILO Convention No. 111 of 1958. It thereby undertook in the first place to declare and pursue a national policy designed to promote equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation with a view to eliminating any discrimination in respect thereof. It also undertook, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice, a number of other obligations to which some reference will be made later in this paper.

In pursuance of the obligations which Australia undertook, a national policy directed at the elimination of discrimination in employment and occupation was declared by the Minister of Labour in a speech in the House of Representatives in June, 1973. The national government also established machinery to give effect to this policy. It set up both State Committees and a National Committee on discrimination. The basic task of the State Committees is to investigate complaints of discrimination in employment which are made to them. If they find that discrimination on one of the grounds specified in the Convention has occurred, they try by a process of conciliation and persuasion to settle the complaint. If they fail to do this, they may refer the matter to the National Committee. This Committee will then attempt to conciliate, but if it fails, it may report the matter to the Minister who, in turn, may report the matter to Parliament. In addition, the State Committees also investigate discriminatory practices of which they become aware, independently of complaints by injured individuals, and they assist the National Committee in the national education campaign to which I shall refer later. For its part, the National Committee is responsible for the coordination of the work of the State Committees, it decides questions of general principle or practice, it makes final decisions on cases referred to it by the State Committees, and it reports to the Minister for Labour.

All Committees have an independent Chairman. They also contain representatives of the Commonwealth and State Governments, of trade unions and of employer organisations. This corresponds to the tripartite organisation of the ILO itself and its committees into government, employers and employees. In addition, the National Committee contains representatives of the groups most frequently discriminated against - women, migrants and aboriginals. The question whether such representation should be extended to the State Committees is presently under consideration.

As already remarked, this action has been taken by Australia in accordance with an international convention. That convention gives expression

to the conviction of the world community that discrimination is a form of social injustice and should therefore be condemned. As an ILO publication[1] points out, attempts to justify it by pointing to the reasons for which people discriminate do not alter the fact that injustice is done. Acts of discrimination may be committed with or without malice, with intent to injure or without a full realisation of the nature or extent of the injury, and for sincere but mistaken reasons, but discrimination in every case is offensive. For instance, there may be understandable reasons for fearing the economic and social effects of employing people of other groups, but these do not justify discrimination. There have been equally good reasons for workers in certain occupations to fear the competition of cheap or unskilled labour drawn from their own race or nationality. The remedy for this, however, has been trade union action to maintain and improve the wages, standards of skill and terms and conditions of employment of all workers, and therefore recourse to discrimination in such cases cannot be accepted as a justifiable remedy. A policy of discrimination does not remove but only aggravates any problems which may arise from the employment of large numbers of workers of a particular group.

The ILO Convention begins with a definition of discrimination. It states that the term includes -

> "Any distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin, which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation."

The definition covers any distinction, exclusion or preference. For example, it covers a refusal to a man of a job because of his race or colour (exclusion); payment of a lower wage to a woman than a man would get for doing the same job (distinction); and the promotion of one person against another with equal qualifications because of his social origin (preference). The definition then lists the particular grounds of discrimination which countries ratifying the Convention must undertake to eliminate.

It is important to observe that these grounds by no means include all those which might properly be regarded as objectionable. There is no reference, for example, to discrimination in employment and occupation on such grounds as age, or conviction of an offence, or nationality (as opposed to national extraction), or homosexuality. This does not of course imply any acceptance of the notion that discrimination on such grounds is proper; it simply means that they are not included within the scope of an internationally negotiated Convention, and accordingly Australia has not undertaken to implement a policy leading to the elimination of discrimination on such grounds.

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1. *Fighting Discrimination in Employment and Occupation. Published by the ILO Geneva, 1968.*

It was realized from the outset that many complaints made to the committees would be on grounds outside the Convention. It would obviously be possible to take the view that such complaints should simply be ignored. But there is, in my opinion, a very cogent reason why this approach should not be adopted. It may well be that in the future the Convention will be amended to cover grounds not presently included, or, perhaps more likely, Australian Parliaments will wish to legislate to remove discrimination on grounds presently outside the Convention. In such cases, it will be of great benefit in the formulation of an international or national attitude of details of particular complaints and of the replies of those against whom the complaints are made are available. The committees have therefore been willing to investigate complaints on grounds outside the Convention, but they have of course never attempted to suggest that elimination of discrimination on such grounds was in accordance with government policy, nor have they attempted to persuade those alleged to be discriminating on such grounds that their action was justifiable.

There are certain kinds of acts which the Convention regards as not being discriminatory. First, it is provided that any distinction, exclusion or preference in respect of a particular job based on the inherent requirements thereof shall not be deemed to be discrimination. Secondly, there is a closely circumscribed exception in the interests of State security. And thirdly, the Convention states that any Member State may, after consultation with representative employers and workers organizations, determine that other special measures designed to meet the particular requirements of persons who, for reasons such as sex, age, disablement, family responsibilities or social or cultural status are generally recognized to require special protection or assistance, shall not be deemed to be discrimination.

Discrimination may obviously take many forms. It may occur in relation to admission to employment. Recruitment policies of firms, or even of government departments, may be discriminatory. It may relate to the conditions of employment, with lower class jobs only being made available to particular categories of employees, or employment being available only on terms which differentiate on discriminatory grounds in respect to such matters as annual leave and sick leave. It may arise in the context of promotion within a department or enterprise. But, perhaps more importantly, discrimination may be attributable not so much to the acts of a particular employer or individual or department which employs a person as to the fact that the person in question belongs to a group which does not have access to adequate facilities for general education or vocational training. The convention is opposed to discrimination not only when it leads to inequality of treatment in employment, but also when it impairs equality of opportunity. Groups in the community who enjoy inferior educational opportunities to others of their age, including inferior vocational training programs, are discriminated against very effectively so far as their future employment opportunities are concerned. For these reasons, an ILO Committee of Experts has rightly drawn attention to two important considerations. First, the Committee emphasises the paramount importance of vocational training, on which actual prospects of access to employment and occupations depend. As the Committee points out, it frequently happens that unequal chances of

vocational training lead to the impairing or nullifying of equality of opportunity or treatment in all other spheres. The Committee also recalls that the words "vocational training" should by no means be interpreted exclusively in a narrow sense, such as apprenticeship or technical education. Secondly, as regards access to employment and occupations as such, the Committee points out that the problem of equality of opportunity and treatment arises not only in connection with restrictions imposed directly, but also with regard to the use of the necessary facilities, such as vocational guidance and placement facilities.

The grounds specified in the Convention refer in the first place to race and colour. In some countries, including the United Kingdom, this is obviously the ground upon which most complaints are based, and legislative action has been taken to deal with race and colour discrimination. In Australia, complaints in the first year after ratification of the Convention on the grounds of race and colour amounted to 12 per cent of the total. Of these, only a small number were made by or on behalf of Aboriginals. This does not of course imply that the number of cases where complaints could have been made was small. It may simply mean that Aboriginals are ignorant of the existence of the machinery which has been set up to investigate such complaints, or that they are reluctant to make use of it. One of the matters which most concerns the Queensland Committee is the difficulty it has experienced in making Aboriginals aware of the work of the Committee and in encouraging them to come forward if they feel that they have a grievance.

The most commonly asserted ground for discrimination is sex. In 1974, 57 per cent of complaints were on this ground. The ILO publication has pointed out that discrimination in all its forms is experienced by women. They are denied access to certain jobs and are often assigned to work of a lower grade than that which they could well perform. The idea that women are only qualified for certain kinds of "women's work" is still widely held. Women's wages and salaries have been traditionally low, though there is now a trend towards equality with men in this. Discrimination against women in regard to general conditions of employment continues to be common. Women even now experience difficulties in securing equal access to facilities for education and training. Their opportunities for advancement are generally less favourable than those of men. They still encounter greater difficulties than men in securing higher appointments and in gaining admission to various occupations and professions.

An analysis of the complaints which have been made to the Australian Committees shows that the following are the main categories of discriminatory treatment on the ground of sex -

a. Certain positions are advertised and/or classified as open only to one sex;

b. The denial of equal opportunity to both sexes for advancement to senior positions;

c. Differential systems of pay and allowances;

d. Requirements for women to resign on marriage or when pregnant;

e. Lesser benefits under superannuation schemes;

f. Earlier compulsory retirement ages.

Need I say that sex discrimination is sometimes alleged also by males?

National extraction is the second most commonly alleged ground for discrimination in Australia. It should be observed that this provision does not cover discrimination on the ground of nationality. Distinctions which may be made by a country between the employment of its own nationals and foreigners do not come within the scope of the Convention. But if an immigrant becomes naturalised he ceases to be an alien; and if he alleges that he has been discriminated against because of his foreign origin, or because he was formerly a national of a particular country, his complaint will be on a ground recognised by the Convention. In practice, of course, the distinction between discrimination on the ground of national extraction and that on the basis of nationality tends to become blurred, as a complaint usually alleges simply than an employer discriminates against migrants. The ILO Convention was forced to exclude discrimination on the ground of nationality because some governments objected to according equal rights in employment to nationals and foreigners alike, particularly where the foreign workers were only temporarily in a country. As I have already remarked, the Australian Committees investigate complaints based on the ground of nationality as one of the non-Convention grounds.

In Australia, the main issues raised in complaints by migrants include the problem of obtaining recognition of overseas education, trade and professional requirements, and in determining suitability for employment in certain areas of work and for promotion to higher positions. There are also inevitably language problems, which not infrequently lead migrants to believe that discrimination is being practised where there is no real justification for believing this to be the case.

The number of complaints on the other Convention grounds - political opinion, religion and social origin - has been comparatively small.

I mentioned at the beginning of this paper that Australia accepted a number of particular obligations at the time of ratification in addition to the declaration of a national policy. It undertook, for example, to repeal any statutory provisions and to modify any administrative instructions or policies which were inconsistent with the policy. To comply with this, the Commonwealth and State governments had carried out a close examination of their legislative provisions and administrative directions prior to ratification of the Convention; and over the ensuing years one task of the Committees has been to draw to the attention of governments cases which seem to have been overlooked where discrimination may occur.

The Commonwealth government also undertook to enact such legislation and to promote such educational programs as may be calculated to secure the acceptance and observance of the policy.

The government has not yet enacted legislation to secure the observance of the policy for reasons I shall outline later in this paper. But considerable importance has been attached to the promotion of an educational campaign. The removal of discrimination is essentially a matter of changing people's attitudes. As the National Chairman has said, the object of the national education campaign is to shift community opinions and attitudes to a position where employment discrimination will not be tolerated. Public opinion must be made aware of the policy, and it must be behind the policy, if it is to be successful. An ILO report has rightly emphasised that while it is important to ensure that all concerned are fully informed of the implication of the national policy, this is especially true of public agencies in their capacity as employers; bodies responsible for operating or supervising vocational guidance training and placement departments; labour administrations and inspectorates; bodies with responsibility for questions affecting entry to independent occupations and the professions and their exercise, and employees and workers organisations. Fortunately, the full cooperation of the Commonwealth and State governments, and of employer organisations and trade unions, has ensured that there must now be few heads of government departments or trade union leaders or personnel officers who are unaware of the discrimination policy. But it is a much more difficult matter to bring it home to the community as a whole, and particularly to disadvantaged groups within the community. At both the National and State levels efforts are being made through TV campaigns, through advertisements in the national and ethnic press, through lectures and through visits to country centres to make the public aware of the policy and responsive to it.

If the objects of the national education committee are to be achieved, it is clearly imperative that schools should become aware of the campaign against discrimination and involved in it. I understand that in one State, as a result of the work of the state discrimination committee, the Education Department is looking at the books used in schools with a view to eliminating that which implies inferiority in women or other persons who are likely to be the subject of discrimination.

I do not need to tell you how important it is that discriminating attitudes which children may learn from their elders and acquaintances should not be buttressed through intentional or unintentional action by educational authorities. On a more positive side, it is to be hoped, and indeed expected, that the schools will play a major role in explaining why discrimination is objectionable and in fostering an attitude in their students that discrimination is intolerable and must not be condoned.

I have already pointed out that the government has not introduced legislation to implement the Convention, but has acted solely through the machinery of committees which have no coercive powers. It has done so partly through apprehension of constitutional difficulties and partly because it has accepted that community attitudes should so far as possible be changed by persuasion rather than through penalties.

Nevertheless, the Commonwealth government has introduced legislation (the Racial Discrimination Act 1975) which provides for legal remedies in cases of discrimination on the grounds of race, colour, or national or ethnic origin. Civil proceedings may be instituted by a person agrieved by an act he considers to have been unlawful under the Act. The Commissioner for Community Relations is empowered to inquire into alleged infringements to endeavour to effect a settlement. He may direct persons to attend a compulsory conference for the purpose of inquiring into an act or settling the matter to which the act relates; failure to attend renders a person liable to a penalty. Legislative action to eliminate discrimination has also been enacted by or is proposed by some State governments.

It may well be that the Commonwealth government will eventually decide to back its national policy to eliminate discrimination with legislative sanction. The matter is one on which the National Committee has not yet adopted a position. For my own part, and speaking purely in a personal capacity, I would counsel against such action at the present time. It seems to me that the work of the State Committees can best be carried forward by the process of conciliation and persuasion with the cooperation of governments, and of employer and employee organisations. The introduction of compulsory procedures and penalties would make the process much more rigid and, I believe, less fruitful. Moreover, my experience with the Queensland Committee leads me to believe that there would be very few cases indeed in which legal proceedings would have been appropriate, or would have done anything to resolve the difficulties which led to a complaint to the Committee.

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CHAPTER 6

VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR THE HANDICAPPED IN THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

R.J. Andrews

The need for adequate vocational training programs for handicapped adolescents has been an important topic to special educators for some time. The whole question of the transition of young people from school to a work environment, however, has recently gained greater attention from the educational world generally, and this in turn has brought a renewed interest in and emphasis on the vocational training programs which are available to the handicapped. As an introduction to this paper, I want to draw your attention to a conference held in Melbourne some four years ago, sponsored by the Australian Association for the Mentally Retarded (AAMR) and supported by the Commonwealth Department of Social Security. That conference looked specifically at the theme of this seminar in terms of the mildly mentally handicapped. The findings, as well as the papers presented, were published in the book *Pensions and Progress*, edited by Norma Rigby.

It seems to me that the general conclusions which I had the opportunity to draw from a review of the literature and research on the work preparation, promise, and performance of the mildly mentally handicapped at that conference (Andrews, 1973), relate to handicapped adolescents generally. The findings of that literature review included the following:

1. "That educational programs are the true basis for the development of employment promise in the mildly mentally retarded. That is, education involving the full development of retardates in terms of their cognitive, personal, social and adjustment potential is the basis on which they can most effectively proceed to adult and work adjustment.

2. That the minimum program to ensure optimum employment opportunities for all mildly mentally retarded adolescents, also requires both work training and placement and follow-up services that preferably are not appendages to education programs but separate programs available to those who need them.

3. That some of the mildly mentally retarded also require more education than that generally allowed for by present school leaving practices, in order to reach their optimum level of work adjustment."

Embedded in this model are a number of principles:

1. The handicapped have differing needs in their preparation for employment.
2. Distinct types of programs are desirable in the progression from education to employment, each of which fulfils a specific part of such preparation.
3. One of the basic tasks in preparing the handicapped for employment is identification of both persons and/or groups of persons who need each type of program or service in order to achieve adequate work adjustment.
4. There must be maximum flexibility in the use of the different services as steps on the road to employment.
5. Currently available educational and other services and resources are not sufficient to ensure opportunities for all of the handicapped to achieve optimum work adjustment.

When we review the extent of provisions in this area today, it seems that the key areas of lack are in specific job training and placement and follow-up services, with perhaps some lack in opportunities for incremental educational preparation. Outside school services, however, we can note a number of programs which can effectively assist the transition of the handicapped young adult from school to work, and can contribute to the pattern of services needed in this area. These are:

1. Australian Government Rehabilitation Centres
2. Work Preparation Centres
3. Sheltered Workshops
4. Activity Therapy Centres

We will look at each in turn.

Australian Government Rehabilitation Centres[1]

The Commonwealth Government provides through its rehabilitation service a number of general rehabilitation centres. From the outset these were based on a concept of comprehensive rehabilitation which looked towards "the restoration of the disabled to the fullest physical, mental, social, and vocational usefulness of which they are capable. Its purpose is to restore function, confidence and independence to handicapped people. It seeks to utilize their latent abilities and to return them to a useful life within the community". In 1970, Griffith commented that this program has been characterized

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1. *Most of the material presented in this and the following section is quoted or taken from information supplied by the Department of Social Security early in 1975.*

by the emphasis it places on the interrelationship of the four aspects of medical, social, vocational and educational rehabilitation.

Residential and day centres have been established in all States except Tasmania, equipped to provide a balanced program of remedial treatment and vocational assessment. They are staffed by case work teams which include occupational and physiotherapists, speech therapists, nursing sisters, social workers, psychologists, remedial teachers and vocational councillors, working under medical supervision. In the case of severely handicapped persons emphasis is placed on the development of skills for meeting the demands of daily living as well as the establishment of work skills. Confidence is restored and residual abilities harnessed in such a way that they can be used to aid in physical and economic independence. Preliminary training, education, sporting activities and a wide variety of amenities are provided to help in assessment, and in the development of future capacity for work and daily living.

In February, 1975 the total case capacity of this program was 900, but developments were underway which should raise this figure to 1,150 cases in the next few years. An official report on these centres for 1973-74 indicates that major disabilities of mental disorder, deafness, blindness, and disorders of communication, were experienced by 17.0 per cent, 2.5 per cent, 3.0 per cent and 0.5 per cent respectively of the total number of cases enrolled in that period.

Under present eligibility requirements these rehabilitation centres are vocationally oriented, and therefore they accept cases for whom there are reasonable prospects of being able to enter employment after rehabilitation assistance. The service provides or arranges for the provision of vocational training, which includes on-the-job training, and makes available books, equipment and tools of trade to the trainees. It assists, in conjunction with the Commonwealth Employment Service, with work placement and follow-up after placement.

To be eligible for receipt of treatment in a general rehabilitation centre a person must meet criteria including the following:

1. Receipt of or eligible to receive an invalid pension or other equivalent benefit (and therefore aged at least sixteen years).
2. In the case of young people of fourteen and fifteen years it is judged that, without treatment or training, they would be likely to qualify for an invalid pension when they reach sixteen years of age.

In additon, the disability experienced by all those referred to in criteria 1 and 2 above must be of a severe nature to the extent that it has a duration of at least 26 weeks and would appear likely to continue for at least 13 weeks after rehabilitation commences. It must be emphasised again that in all cases receiving rehabilitation through this program there must be reasonable prospects of the person being able to engage in a suitable vocation following such rehabilitation.

Work Preparation Centres

These centres are also part of the Australian Government Rehabilitation Service. Currently there are two such centres, located in Melbourne and Sydney on a pilot basis. Their purpose is to habilitate-rehabilitate mildly mentally handicapped young people and help them make the transfer between special schooling and satisfying employment. Specifically they provide assessment, counselling and preparation for life and work for those experiencing difficulty in finding or holding suitable employment, or who, after repeated failure, tend to gravitate to life as an invalid pensioner.

These centres are staffed for case work and workshop operation. The staff includes: psychologists, social workers, welfare officers, vocational counsellors, occupational and speech therapists, and special (remedial) teachers as well as a workshop manager, supervisors and trade instructors. Each centre has a capacity to enrol 50 young people at a time. These cases average in age between 15 and 16 years, and their IQs range from 50 to 80. The average time in the program is between six and twelve months. The centres, as suggested above, work closely with special schools.

These centres are seen as a major move to meet a recommendation of the Woodhouse Committee (1974), adopted from an AAMR submission, that suggested the need for "access to vocational assessment programs and training for satisfying employment appropriate to ability and personality". As mentioned before, they are experimental at this stage, and evaluative research is being undertaken into their development and functioning, but the value of these Centres in the transition of handicapped school leavers to work is assured.

Sheltered Workshops

The first general move to provide sheltered employment for handicapped adolescents and adults in Australia began in the late 1950's and the early part of the 1960's. For sometime these programs were operated entirely by the voluntary community organizations who set them up, and little recognition was given by government to the employment needs of the handicapped. This situation existed until the Handicapped Persons (Assistance) Act of 1967 was enacted, when the Commonwealth Government offered financial support to voluntary groups in providing these employment opportunities.

The aim of sheltered workshop programs is, in general terms, to provide "a preparation for work, or an opportunity for some to advance to or return to normal employment".[1] They have been seen by many to be a place for "long term rehabilitation to open employment, wherever possible"; but they also "provide subsidized employment for the handicapped"[2] population. In this respect Sheltered Workshop programs can provide special employment environments to those who are unable to undertake productive work output in open industry, but who can do so

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1. *Rehabilitation Research and Development Digest*, No. 5, 1975, p. 11.
2. *Rehabilitation Research and Development Digest*, January - February, 1975, p. 80.

if they have the general support of a supervised work environment. In addition, we ought to recognize a general social aim of sheltered employment; to seek the integration of the handicapped into the community and meet their right to work. One further aim which is often referred to is an economic aim of sheltered employment; to provide personal economic stability for handicapped persons, and in this way reduce the economic responsibility which society has for the handicapped.

The latest available statistics in respect to sheltered workshops in Australia are presented in the 1974 survey undertaken by the Department of Social Security.[1] This report indicates that in 1974 there were 177 sheltered workshops catering for 8,871 disabled employees and 1,995 non-disabled employees. During that year, 772 handicapped persons are recorded as being placed in open employment. The average weekly earnings of disabled employees in sheltered workshops was $8.12. The following tables set out the types of disabilities experienced by the clients in the sheltered workshops referred to, and also set out the percentage of those employed in sheltered workshops who were placed in open employment each year from 1966 to 1974.

Table 1

Types of Disabilities catered for in Sheltered Workshops*

	% of Clients
Mental retardation	54
Physical handicap	12.5
Cerebral palsy	11.8
Psychiatric illness	9.1
Blindness	4.4
Other	8.2
	100.0

* Figures from Rehabilitation Research and Development Digest, No. 5, 1975 - 1974 Survey of Sheltered Workshops.

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1. *This was also the last survey reported before the administrative changes of the 1974 Handicapped Persons (Assistance) Act and therefore, all the information reported from that survey refers to facilities today termed sheltered workshops or activity therapy centres.*

Table 2

Percentage of Sheltered Workshop Employees placed in open employment, 1966-74*

Year	%
1966	13.4
1967	n.a
1968	9.8
1969	11.7
1970	15.0
1971	7.7
1972	6.9
1973	10.7
1974	8.7

* Figures from Rehabilitation Research and Development Digest, No.5, 1975 - 1974 Survey of Sheltered Workshops.

Some of the major subsidy payments that are provided for under the Handicapped Persons (Assistance) Act of 1974, to enable sheltered workshops to provide partial or full employment opportunities for the handicapped, are:

1. A subsidy of four to one on initial capital expenditure or rental costs, and on building maintenance.
2. An incentive allowance of $5 per week paid to all employees of a sheltered workshop.
3. A $500 training fee paid to a sheltered workshop for each disabled employee it graduates to open employment.
4. Salary subsidies of approximately 50 per cent are paid in respect to all approved staff members.

In respect of the training fee it can be noted that in the first four years that this fee was offered, only 332 or less than four per cent of persons in sheltered workshops (as at mid-1974) had been graduated to open employment. (Rehabilitation Research and Development Digest, No. 5, 1975, p.11.) This figure can be compared with that given in a United Kingdom consultative document on sheltered employment for disabled people where it is reported that only two to three per cent of sheltered workers leave for open industry each year (Rehabilitation Research and Development Digest, Jan-Feb, 1975).

Activity Therapy Centres

When the Commonwealth Government enacted the Handicapped Persons (Assistance) Act in late 1974 this Act combined the provisions of the former Sheltered Employment (Assistance) Act and the former Handicapped Children's (Assistance) Act, and extended those provisions. The 1967 Sheltered Employment (Assistance) Act brought government financial assistance for the establishment of employment programs for the handicapped, and associated residential facilities,

but limited the application of the subsidy arrangements. Two particular problems experienced under that Act were:

1. The difficulty experienced by workshops for the mentally handicapped in meeting the required payment levels set down for the majority of employees, even when extensive production-type programs were operated.
2. The provisions of the Act did not enable voluntary groups to meet the needs of all handicapped adults, or all the needs of those actually taking part in productive activities in workshop situations.

In the vocational area the 1974 Act designates two distinct types of programs - sheltered workshops and the newer activity therapy centres - and provides grants to eligible organizations towards the cost of programs of all handicapped persons. In the case of activity centres, these include -

1. salary subsidies for staff employed,
2. capital subsidies for the establishment of services,
3. replacement capital equipment for activity centres,
4. subsidies for the maintenance of premises,
5. rental subsidies,
6. recreational assistance, and
7. therapeutic training programs.

Broadly, these and related provisions help to solve the financial difficulties in providing programs for the severely handicapped adult, relax the need to reach payment standards for activity centres, reiterate a vocational emphasis with adequate remuneration to employees in sheltered workshops, and generally maintain the philosophical basis of employment programs that has been followed in the past.

As indicated above, this Act designates employment programs as sheltered workshops or activity therapy centres, and it is this provision that gives one of the most challenging situations that has faced voluntary groups in the provision of adult services for some years, and enabled flexibility that could provide increased work training opportunities for handicapped persons.

In providing for the establishment of activity centres, however, few guidelines were given by government to voluntary organizations as to the distinctions that should be made between a sheltered workshop and an activity centre. But over a period of months, both the Department of Social Security and some voluntary groups, including the Australian Council for Rehabilitation of the Disabled (ACROD), have generally adopted an approach whereby workshops are strongly vocational in nature while activity centres are also strongly concerned with the personal-social development of the handicapped client. It is important to note that activity centres may become sheltered workshops at some future date, but in any case should seek to prepare their clients for a possible sheltered workshop placement.

The ACROD definitions are of interest here: *Sheltered Workshops* are to be conducted for the purposes of providing remunerative work, together with services related to habilitation - rehabilitation for handicapped people in a realistic work oriented environment. *Activity Centres* are to provide social and vocational training, therapeutic services and useful occupation (or any one of these) for severely handicapped adolescents and adults. Where applicable, vocational training programs should be designed to develop the abilities of a handicapped person to a level acceptable to sheltered workshop services.

Some principles for the operation of activity therapy centres

Because of the recent development of activity therapy centre programs some additional comment on these programs is relevant to this discussion, and will highlight the potential of these centres as work training and preparation centres.[1]

1. It is important to include work activities of a productive nature wherever possible. The program should be flexible in the proportions of non-work activities and work activities. A general standard might consist of one third of the program being devoted to activities which are not work related and two thirds of the program being given over to work tasks. However, it needs to be realized that these proportions would vary between activity therapy centres. For instance, some units for the very severely handicapped might only include five or ten per cent of the program as work-related tasks. This is one of the provisions of the new Act which should be taken advantage of to meet the needs of this group.

2. The addition of non-work activities can be achieved by, say, arranging the program as three sessions a day wherein one third of the clients are allocated during each session to engage in the non-work program.

3. It is important that a specific area of the activity centre be allocated to the activities program.

4. The staff employed to undertake the non-work aspects of the program would normally be assisted by the general supervisors in the activity therapy centre, as arranged by the manager of the unit. It should be anticipated that some supervisors will have special skills to offer here. All staff could be involved in the program as an integral part of the activities of the centre. Recreation and other personnel could also assist if they were available.

Where more than one staff member can be appointed to engage in the activities program (this seems desirable if more than 40 to 45 young people are enrolled) it would be preferable to allocate different areas of the program to each staff member. For instance, recreation and hobbies might be allocated to one staff member and social development and continuing education to another.

5. It should always be seen that the programs of vocational centres of this type are essentially an extension of the school program from which the young people have come, and therefore it is necessary to continue the personal (including speech) development of the young people.

1. *The section is based on guidelines developed by a working party of the Brisbane Branch of the Queensland Spastic Children's Welfare Association, of which the writer was Chairman.*

6. The activities program can be subdivided in a number of ways. One possibility is as follows -

a. recreation,
b. hobbies and handcrafts,
c. social development (including a canteen program), and
d. continuing education and training.

7. The following activities in each of the above areas are listed as suggestions.

a. Recreation - creative activities such as art and craft; physical activities such as physical training, sports and games; music and dancing; swimming; pause gymnastics; activities such as cooking, sewing, barbeque-picinic lunches.

b. Hobbies and handcrafts - art, leather work, bead work, sewing and soft toys, copper enamelling, screen printing, textile painting, basket work, pottery.

c. Social development and canteen - social elements such as self care, responsibility to others and to work, social behaviour, language and speech, food preparation and serving; personal counselling; social training as a continuation of training received at school.

d. Continuing education and training - work skills and attitudes, specific teaching of job skills, groups to be involved in basic skills of reading, writing, social studies and community interest areas.

8. At the moment it is not possible to employ activities officers who have received formalized training but it is suggested that such staff would be qualified for appointment by -

a. experience as a teacher's aide or teacher
b. experience as a workshop or activity therapy centre supervisor,
c. other relevant experience with the handicapped, and
d. special skills in recreation and hobbies areas.

Vocational programs and the transition from school to work

From the above review of four different types of vocational programs that are presently operated in this country, it will be seen that they tend to fall into two main groups. The first group is concerned with short term vocationally oriented programs. Rehabilitation centres and work preparation centres provide appropriate work training and placement and follow-up services which are aimed at particular groups of handicapped persons, but these groups tend to be a minority of the total handicapped population who need assistance in obtaining and adjusting to satisfying work situations.

As long term vocational programs, sheltered workshops and activity therapy centres can help meet this need to a far greater extent than they at present are achieving. These centres could also be of significant benefit in short term work experience prior to work placement, but their more usual purpose would be long term employment training in work and work related skills. For instance these centres can readily be staffed to offer a wide range of services such as -

1. assessment,
2. work training,
3. work experience,
4. counselling and guidance,
5. further education and training,
6. personal-social development, and
7. social opportunities.

as well as active services for job placement and follow-up. In this respect consideration needs to be given to the development of a role for rehabilitation counsellors in vocational programs as a distinct aid to promoting the programs as a useful vehicle for vocational placement (Miller, 1976).

The Koomari Project

Research into extending the contribution of sheltered workshops in the rehabilitation for open employment has recently been undertaken at the Koomari sheltered workshop in the Australian Capital Territory (Hughes, 1976). Preliminary discussions toward the scheme were undertaken in April, 1975 and, as a result of these discussions, the Department of Social Security and the Handicapped Citizens' Association, which operates the sheltered workshop, reached an agreement whereby the Department would make the required funds available to the organization to enable it to arrange a well structured training and assessment program aimed at the rehabilitation of mentally handicapped young adults.

The program was based on the Adaptive Functioning Index (AFI) which was developed by the Vocational Rehabilitation Research Institute in Calgary, Canada. The assessment and training program operated for a period of sixteen weeks and was concerned with both vocational, residential and social living aspects. The Association selected its printing department as a most suitable venue for the program, and production in the unit was subordinated for purposes of the research. Some of the highlights included daily payment for actual units of work produced to teach the young people the relationship between units of work and money earned; feed back to the trainees on the quantity and quality of their work output; training based on the principle of over-learning; breaking down tasks into steps that provided suitable incentives; self-ratings by trainees in terms of work targets; individual programs drawn up for each person and involvement of each trainee in his own program as marked on the AFI chart.

A random selection of 16 mentally handicapped persons made up the experimental group and another 16 were designated the control group. The ages of these people ranged from 16 to 30 years, and their IQs ranged between 40 and 85. All had been granted invalid pensions as being 85 per cent permanently incapacitated for employment.

Concurrently with the vocational program a team of social workers called regularly on the parents of the children in the experimental group, most of whom lived at home. The social workers involved the parents in the assessment of the trainee on the residential scale of the AFI and drew up programs for the parents to follow in developing more adaptive skills in their handicapped son or daughter. The control group received the same number of assessment visits but no specific programs were put into operation.

Following is a synopsis of the data collected (Table 3) and the major results of the program (Table 4).

Table 3

Indices employed in the AFI

1. Combined vocational and residential index
2. Vocational index
   - a. Vocational Sub-test I - Basic work habits
   - b. " " II - Work skills
   - c. " " III - Acceptance skills
3. Residential index
   - a. Residential sub-test I - Personal routines
   - b. " " II - Community awareness
   - c. " " III - Social maturity

Table 4

Analysis of variance results for

Koomari project

Source (as in Table 3)	F ratios		
	Treatment (Exp. Group v. Control Group)	I.Q. (High I.Q. v. low I.Q. group)	Interaction (Treatment and I.Q. level)
1	11.8^{xx}	7.9^{xx}	1.9
2	4.6^{x}	14.7^{xxx}	3.6
2a	6.8^{x}	14.6^{xxx}	3.0
2b	5.7^{x}	11.3^{xx}	0.4_{xx}
2c	1.2	12.6^{xx}	8.5^{xx}
3	12.8^{xx}	4.4^{x}	1.1
3a	11.2^{xx}	1.6	1.3
3b	13.7^{xxx}	7.2^{x}	3.3
3c	6.4^{x}	1.5	0.1

xxx < .001 xx < .01 x < .05

The conclusions set out by Hughes in his report are worthy of note.

> "The training procedures of the Adaptive Functioning Index (A.F.I.) resulted in significant improvements in vocational and residential type skills over training using less systematic approaches to training. In the vocational program both the high and low IQ ranges benefited from the A.F.I. procedures but the lower IQ ranges appeared to benefit most by the procedures.
>
> For the residential programs both high IQ and low IQ groups benefited equally except for the area of the program dealing with community awareness where the low IQ group appeared to benefit most from the experimental program."

Conclusion

In the introduction to this paper major needs in regard to programs to facilitate the transition of handicapped adolescents from school to work were suggested to include job training and placement and follow-up services. The Koomari project has helped to demonstrate the potential benefits that can be obtained from the greater use of existing vocational programs, especially sheltered workshops and activity centres, but also the newer work preparation centres, to facilitate this important process.

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CHAPTER 7

THE SCHOOL LEAVERS UNEMPLOYMENT MOBILISATION PROGRAM

Jane MacDonald

The School Leavers Unemployment Mobilisation Program (SLUMP) was an initiative from within the field of Social Welfare to meet the needs of 500 school leavers seeking employment simultaneously in Rockhampton, at a time when employment opportunities were already severely depressed. A "drop-in" centre was open from 9.00 a.m. to 5.00 p.m. for a five week period, beginning in early January 1976. School leavers had access to information about careers and job opportunities, were able to participate in group discussions to prepare them for work, were introduced to job-finding strategies and interview techniques, were able to discuss problems they had encountered in finding work, and make realistic decisions about their future in a relaxed and supportive environment. Employment was found for 17 per cent of the 220 school leavers who registered with SLUMP, but the success of the program lay mainly in the personal support and individual attention which was afforded to the school leavers.

Initiating the program

The Social Planner of the Fitzroy Regional Council for Social Development (under the auspices of the Australian Assistance Plan) made preliminary investigations into the extent of the problem and called a meeting which was attended by headmasters of High Schools, social workers, youth counsellors, youth workers, church leaders, representatives of the Departments of Social Security, Children's Services and Probation and Parole, and officers from Vocational Guidance and Community Health.

A planning committee of eight was nominated and the program was designed. It was acknowledged that there were many untried assumptions underlying the project, the basic one being that school leavers would respond to extra attention and assistance. It was hoped that they would be enabled to find employment by this extra assistance.

The needs of school leavers

Many needs of school leavers can be met by ensuring the transition from school to work is as smooth and unthreatening as possible. The primary need is to have a school curriculum that is geared towards the real life situation, and an important pre-requisite to employment is an adequate introduction to the experience of work. Ideally, work-release programs permit

school leavers to sample the different occupations in which they are interested.

The need for up-to-date information about careers, job vacancies and work opportunities and for a balanced presentation of information to enable school leavers to make a well-informed and realistic choice about their future is essential. In addition, school leavers need information about Credit Unions, Trade Unions, taxation and insurance.

Preparation for work means also that school leavers have participated in mock interviews with 'employers', have been advised on presentation for a job interview, writing job applications and also on the need for formality in the job interview situation. School leavers need also to have personalised support to maintain morale and self-confidence during the transition from school to work, and to have the opportunity to meet with other young people who face the same problem, in a relaxed and supportive setting.

Aims of the program

The aims of the School Leavers Unemployment Mobilisation Program were that SLUMP should -

a. be a vehicle for unemployed school leavers to come together to work on their common problem in a constructive and supportive climate which would assist them to assess their situation and make realistic choices for their future,

b. be a highlighter to draw attention to the problems of school leavers and to the wider community issue that, this year (1976), unemployment has been assessed as being three times greater than in the preceding year,

c. be an activator, to mobilise and encourage self-help among school leavers and provide a participating program of group discussion and counselling to assist them in obtaining employment.

Objectives of the program

The objectives of the School Leavers Unemployment Mobilisation Program were:

a. to place as many school leavers in employment (both temporary and permanent) as possible,

b. to inform school leavers of the range of employment opportunities open to them,

c. to provide, for the duration of the program, a centre which could be used by school leavers as a meeting place, source of information and "drop-in" centre,

d. to provide sound advice and information about job choices, how to apply for jobs, alternative courses to employment, for example, further training or education, in order to assist school leavers to make realistic choices about their futures,

e. to mobilise community support services to assist young people find employment,

f. to document as thoroughly as possible the problems that young unemployed school leavers face, and the employment resources available, and to make recommendations for further policy.

Four phases of the program

Phase 1 Initial contact with school leavers through their school and mobilisation of support resources such as Commonwealth Employment Service, vocational guidance or youth counsellors.

Phase 2 Program development and assistance for school leavers commenced on January 5th. Assistance included transport to job interviews, use of support facilities such as telephone and analysis of "Jobs Vacant" column.

Phase 3 'Rethink, relocate, retrain'. These sorts of decisions had to be made by school leavers before school recommenced or other learning institutions resumed studies for the year.

Phase 4 Evaluation of the program, which was monitored and documented throughout.

Phases 2 and 3 are outlined in further detail.

Program development and assistance to school leavers needing help

The program was divided into two separate parts; morning and afternoon sessions. The morning session was primarily for new registrants, when they could join a group led by a resource person for mock job interviews, discussion of different aspects of work, problems they were encountering in getting work and also any other family or personal problems. Vocational information and careers pamphlets were displayed in the drop-in centre.

After the group session, individual attention was given to each school leaver by the co-ordinator of the program, who went through their registration form with them, and arranged job interviews where possible. Support facilities such as assistance in analysing the Jobs Vacant column in the newspaper, use of telephone for enquiries about jobs, and help with writing job applications.

Any initial doubts that the program would not be supported by the target group were quickly dispelled. On the first day 50 school leavers registered for the program, and all were enthusiastic about the benefits of the program. They felt that their knowledge about the work situation, interview skills and self-confidence had been increased.

Referrals and appointments were made for school leavers with both Regional Guidance and the Department of Social Security when the need arose.

Group discussions led into problems confronting school leavers such as, conflict at home, loss of enthusiasm for work after initial knockbacks, social pressures against 'dole-bludgers', and feelings of inferiority felt by unemployed school leavers when their friends had found employment. Although these discussions helped school leavers to realise that their problems were shared by others, the resource people could do little additional counselling because of pressures of time. Ideally, a public meeting of parents and school leavers could have been conducted to help parents realise that the inability of their children to gain employment was not necessarily a reflection upon the child's capabilities, but was an economic problem facing all job seekers, over which they have no control.

The school leavers responded well to the extra assistance and attention shown to them by resource people. They became more self-confident, articulate and hopeful of gaining employment, and less self-condemnatory.

The afternoon "Interest Program" provided an opportunity for the different interests of the school leavers to be met. It was intended to enable school leavers to participate in discussions about different careers and also to provide information about various other topics of relevance to school leavers in their situation.

Each session was led by different people from throughout the community, and the range of topics included the travel and tourist industry, salesmanship, nursing, banking and insurance, video techniques and tour of the ABC TV studio, an apprenticeship forum, conservation, secretarial, clerical and office work, rural employment, "Getting to Know Yourself", technical college and adult education courses, transcendental meditation, buying sound equipment and a car or motor bike, "The Employer's Perspective of an Applicant", and many others.

'Re-think, relocate, retrain'

The basic aim of this phase was to provide school leavers with as much information and support as required to make realistic decisions about their future. It was during this phase that most support was to be available because many school leavers would have to decide whether to go back to school or to enrol for technical college or tertiary courses as a consequence of not having found employment. At this stage also, many would be experiencing increased pressure from their parents to find employment, and in all probability, many would have been refused at numerous job interviews. The co-ordinator was able to give personalised assistance by way of driving school leavers to job interviews, putting them on trains to go to a different centre to work, and delivering messages about job interviews when school leavers did not have the telephone.

It was found that although the majority of school leavers had made a definite decision to leave school, a small proportion (four per cent) were still undecided. Their decision was dependent upon whether or not they could find a job, as their parents did not want them "sitting around the house".

Most school leavers had definite job preferences, but when unable to find this work they applied for anything and everything, rather than be unemployed. Numerous cases could be quoted whereby school leavers took jobs which were below their expectations and academic qualifications. Very few of them were prepared to leave Rockhampton to find their preferred type of work, but many of them realized that additional study would be beneficial in assisting them into the few preferred job vacancies available.

The resource people were able to ensure that as much information as possible concerning alternatives open to school leavers was made available, and during the group discussions, to help them think these alternatives through.

The follow-up group counselling sessions, which were attended by 55 young people, highlighted the predicament these young people were in. Some wanted to return to school, but their parents would not allow them, and others did not want to return to school, and their parents were forcing them to. These sessions were a supportive individualized way of showing the young people that concern was felt for them, and their particular problem, and to help them to re-assess their situation and come to a decision.

These sessions were also utilized to get feed-back from the school leavers about how they had found the program. All agree that SLUMP was a very worthwhile program. The main reasons were that it 'gets jobs', and 'provides a place for kids to sit down and not hang around the streets'. All agreed that, if possible, there should be some sort of continuation of the program, if necessary, run by the school leavers themselves.

Recommendations made by the participants included:

1. Bigger drop-in centre

2. Better music

3. Need for more involvement of employers - they should be invited to come to the drop-in centre and tell the young people their expectations of an employee.

4. Extend the hours of opening

5. Get money from the Government to continue the program all year round.

Comments by the school leavers were also enlightening. They compared SLUMP to the Commonwealth Employment Service and made unfavourable comments about the Commonwealth Employment Service, for example, they were "told by the CES what jobs to apply for (regardless of their liking)", "CES is for older people and run by older people","SLUMP offered more - getting jobs and how to go about interviews, etc."

Evaluation

An evaluation of the program was completed by the co-ordinator of the program. Notes and statistics were kept during the program, and these were to be made available to all agencies and institutions with a likely interest in the program. Also, the school leavers were encouraged to give their own evaluation of the programs and many recommendations were made by them for future school leavers programs.

The SLUMP program was a local initiative to meet the needs of school leavers seeking employment. The unique features of the program were:

1. As it had no government grant, the community supported it in finance, manpower and equipment.

2. Its flexible structure allowed for changes to be made when new needs arose.

3. It attempted to meet all the different needs of school leavers.

4. It drew nationwide attention to the problems facing school leavers.

Although the program was a "school leavers'" program, it was open to any young people who came. Ages of participants ranged from 14 to 25, although the majority were 15-16 years old. Some criticism was levelled at the program before it commenced: that it would attract only middle-class

school leavers who had made their decision about their future and were falling back on SLUMP as a means of achieving this. This criticism was unfounded, as participants came from many different backgrounds and with a wide range of abilities. The program attracted Aboriginal school leavers, Opportunity School leavers, and a school leaver from the School for the Deaf.

The program attracted 12 per cent of its school leavers from many areas outside Rockhampton, including Baralaba, Biloela, Mt. Morgan, Emu Park, Yeppoon and Mt. Larcom.

The duration of the program (five weeks) was adequate to ensure that most school leavers who were interested had an adequate opportunity to register and participate in the different facets of the program. At the conclusion of the program, many school leavers asked "What are we going to do without SLUMP?" They felt that *their* program was letting them down by ending, as they had greater expectations of finding work through SLUMP than through any other means, and the loss of the drop-in centre was felt to be a personal deprivation by many.

During the running of the program the Planning Committee was able to review statistics and the program weekly, and make arrangements to meet the needs of the school leavers. Some examples are highlighted.

a) Need for additional information and supportive counselling

Some school leavers were hindered in their attempts to gain employment by failure in one or two courses of their Junior Certificate. While knowing that the Technical College offered an opportunity to complete studies, they had little knowledge about what courses were available, eligibility criteria or enrolment procedure. An officer from the Technical College was invited to attend the afternoon program to clarify with the school leavers this information, and also to outline courses available through Adult Education.

During the last week of the program, after school had recommenced, it was apparent that some school leavers were still undecided about whether to return to school. A Guidance Officer was invited to meet with these young people and to give them additional information and counselling to assist them in coming to a decision. This session was attended by ten school leavers, who commented on the beneficial assistance they had received.

b) Need for encouragement and moral support

Many school leavers were demoralised after failing in their initial attempts to gain employment. (One school leaver had been for 25 job interviews before finding a position through SLUMP.) Their efforts in finding a job were supported and encouraged, and only a few looked upon SLUMP as the sole source of employment.

c) Mobilisation and arrangement of unstructured activities

The drop-in centre quickly became a focal point for school leavers. After applying for jobs in the morning, they had little to do during the day and soon made the drop-in centre "their place". Even some of those who found employment returned daily to the drop-in centre to eat their lunch and meet their friends. They assisted in the running of the employment agency side of the program, registering jobs, assisting new school leavers with their applications, arranging interviews and assisting with general office procedure. They were responsible for printing SLUMP posters and distributing these in shops around the city.

The school leavers were interested in the financial support of "their" program and also in finding jobs which could be registered at the drop-in centre. A computer program list was made available by the Capricornia Institute of Advanced Education of all businesses in the Rockhampton City, and over a period of ten days all were contacted by the school leavers by phone, seeking job opportunities and donations. The Fitzroy Regional Council for Social Development made available an office and telephone, and the chance to be on the "Phone Brigade" was much contested by the school leavers. It resulted in ten jobs being registered and approximately $100 in donations.

The Planning Committee proposed a program of community service and many school leavers eagerly participated. A bus was loaned for the program, and a morning was spent at an orphanage, fixing bikes, mowing lawns and helping in homes. Wide favourable publicity was given, and further requests from the community for voluntary service were met.

The following recommendations are based on the experiences gained in SLUMP:

1. More publicity should be arranged, informing the public of the problems faced by school leavers in finding employment, and an effort should be made to disassociate condemnatory terms such as "dole bludgers" from, specifically, the school leaver.

2. Schools should take a more realistic approach in preparing school leavers for employment, both in forming their expectations, arranging work-release programs and giving them experience in job-interviews, writing applications and other aspects of presentation.

3. Efforts should be made by the Commonwealth Employment Service to show specialised, personalised attention to the specific needs of school leavers, and to work in conjunction with other agencies, as many school leavers have much wider problems than the immediate lack of employment.

4. Headmasters of schools should initiate liaison with employer bodies to find out the ways in which the changing structure of the workforce affects job prospects of school leavers, and thereby requires changes in school curriculum.

5. Detached Youth Worker should be employed in Rockhampton to document the needs and problems of young people and to represent this age group in policy formulation.

* * * * *

APPENDIX

STATISTICAL SUMMARY

a) 221 school leavers registered - 114 males, 107 females
b) 12.5% of the total came from outside Rockhampton
c) 16.7% of the total left school before 1975
d) Standard completed -

1.8%	completed Grade	8
9.0%	"	" 9
71.4%	"	" 10
3.6%	"	" 11
7.6%	"	" 12

1.35% attending tertiary institution
Remainder unspecified

e) Male job preference -

Breakdown:	
Mechanical	25.3%
Carpenter	15.8%
Fitter & Turner	17.4%
Boilermaker	7.9%
Electrical	12.6%
Painter	6.3%
Bricklayer	3.17%
Panel Beater	4.76%
Baker	1.58%
Labouring	8.7%
Clerical	2.6%
Sales	4.3%
Farm Work	5.2%
Other	14.0%

f) Female job preference -

Breakdown:	
Secretarial/Clerical	49.5%
Shop Assistant	20.5%
Domestic	2.8%
Hairdressing	0.9%
Temporary work only	3.7%
Information only	1.8%
Other	20.5%

g) Follow-up (one week after conclusion)

	% of females	% of males	% of total
Still seeking employment	29.9	47.3	38.9
Obtained job through SLUMP	17.7	17.5	17.6
Since lost SLUMP job	0.9	1.7	-
Obtained job without SLUMP	15.8	10.5	13.1
Returned to school permanently ..	7.4	6.1	6.7
Returned to school until job found ..	2.8	3.5	3.16
Armed services	-	1.75	0.9
University or CIAE	0.9	2.6	-
Technical College	11.2	-	7.2
Vocational Guidance or Information only	-	-	0.9
Temporary work only	-	-	1.8
No follow-up available	8.4	10.5	9.5

h) 280 job interviews arranged; 37 permanent jobs filled + apprenticeships

i) 26 per cent of school leavers had not registered with the CES

j) 1,100 phone calls

Progress of the program

	New registrations	Perm. jobs registered	Temp. jobs registered	Follow-up session
Week 1	101	14	18	-
Week 2	46	8	4	-
Week 3	19	5	10	-
Week 4	33	10	10	36
Week 5	22	6	15	18
	221	43	37	54

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CHAPTER 8

ADULT LITERACY CLASSES

D. Burnes
P. Mathams
W. Robertson

Classes for adults who wish to improve their mastery of basic literacy skills are included in the Adult Education program in Queensland. The following accounts describe some practical techniques used by teachers in the adult literacy classes.

A. *TEACHING MATERIALS AND TECHNIQUES FOR ESTABLISHING INITIAL READING SKILLS IN ADOLESCENTS AND ADULTS*

In teaching adolescents and adults to read, the same linguistic, visual, auditory, sequential and (other) subskills must be achieved as in programs for children.

The aims of the initial teaching program are two-fold:

a. Attempt to alleviate the sense of failure and social inadequacy which frequently accompanies illiteracy.

b. Develop basic literacy skills.

The focus is on the individual needs of each student. Writing is given as much stress as reading. Name and address, personal details, etcetera as required on forms. Taped copies of the rules of the road as required to obtain a driver's licence or the regulations associated with small boat navigation might be offered to some students while another might need a copy of a note which instructs the milkman not to leave any milk for days.

As this class, which is funded by the Board of Adult Education in Queensland, is conducted on Monday nights headlines from the Sunday newspapers are used as reading exercises by recording them on tape. This serves four main functions:-

a. Exposure to typical language structures used in news reporting, and vocabulary extension.

b. Practise at following print while listening to the tape.

c. Check on comprehension.

d. And most crucially provides students with news based "small talk" to use at work, and among neighbours and friends.

Published materials, especially designed for adults or adolescents are still relatively scarce. This program relies heavily upon teacher-made materials.

The skill development section of the program is phonic and the tape recorder and Language Master are used extensively. Sight vocabulary is presented both in single word and in phrase form. It is selected from basic readers used in the program and on the basis of "survival" value.

The following commercially produced materials which were designed for adults have been found useful:

1. Programmed Reading for Adults
   (A Sullivan Associates Program) N.Y. McGraw Hill, 1966

2. Colvin, Ruth J. and Root, Jane H.
   Reading evaluation - adult diagnosis - READ
   Chicago, Follett, 1972.

3. *Tutor*
   Chicago, Follett, 1972

4. Bauer, Josephine
   Getting Started - Communications 1)
   On the Way - " 2) Chicago, Follett, 1966
   Full Speed ahead - " 3)

(Nos. 2 and 3 were designed for use by Literacy Volunteers and, used in conjunction with No. 4, would be helpful to inexperienced teachers in developing a program.)

5. Smith, Edward
   Readers Digest Teacher's Manual for Adult Readers.
   N.Y. Readers Digest Services, 1965.

Background information about the present student population in this class:-

Group Size: Two sessions each of about 60 minutes cater for approximately eight students in each session. This is quite a high student-teacher ratio and the teacher is assisted by a volunteer tutor who is a graduate of the program. The motivational value to other students is considerable.

Age Range: 17 to 54 years

Intelligence: Generally average to dull average with a minority of mildly mentally handicapped students.

Entry Behaviour in Reading:

Range from ability to recognize some letter names and sounds and a Raw Score of 1 or 2 on the St. Lucia Graded Word Reading Test to a R.A. of about six years.

Educational background:

Range from no formal schooling to completion of Grade 10

Employment History:

Mostly unskilled or semi-skilled workers with a minority of tradesmen and owners of small businesses.

B. *TECHNIQUES FOR ADULTS WITH SOME LITERACY SKILLS*

Written stories

Phonics needs to be seen as only part of writing, as it is also of reading. Spelling words in isolation is of minimal usefulness to the illiterate adult, yet all too often, he is afraid of writing - it poses too many challenges.

By giving him lists of words arranged phonically that he has previously been taught to read, and focussing attention on them, helps also to decrease his anxiety. For example, Gillham's first group of words consists of eight phonically separate lists for the units - ee, sh, ch, er, ay, ck, th, -ing. A story using these lists might begin thus:

I *sh*ot an *ee*l for dinn*er*, *th*en a fi*ch* and a du*ck* wi*th* a ra*sh* on its wi*ng*.

Note that the student underlines, or uses a different colour on the phonic units to be learned.

Spelling

To further consolidate these spelling skills, I use tapes. They are nothing fancy. There are three levels all working on roughly the same principles, which are:

1. Student is told the word in a sentence.

2. He turns the recorder off and attempts the word orally.

3. He turns the recorder on and writes the word.

   A second time as it is spelled by the teacher, then proceeds to the next word.

4. There are then dictation exercises on the phonic units covered on the tape - also corrected, after each sentence.

   The three levels are:

   a. Simple words with the same phonic unit i.e. all "ee" words - feed, seed, keen, bee.

   b. Some simple, some more difficult words, but with two phonic units having different sounds, i.e. ou = house and ow = cow would not be presented together; rather oa (ō) and ue (o͞o) for example, boat, blue, soap, soak, glue ....

   c. More difficult words, but again with only one basic phonic unit. The difficulty lies in getting the other letters around the phonic unit, for example, ai remain, complain, explain, ungainly ....

These exercices form only a part of the teaching process, but a useful part. As they are self-administered and self-corrected, they free the teacher to work more closely with those not using the tapes.

Cloze Procedure

Used properly, these can be a very effective aid, and they are really very easy to use effectively. The main rule is - always discuss the passage after it is done.

To teach specific skills, it is probably best not to rely on the common nth word deletion. Specific skills require specific instruction. If you wish to teach the use of nouns, then you delete every 4th, or 5th noun only. This should generate a lot of discussion of their function, etcetera.

Other things can be done, or will need to be done, depending on the level of those in your class.

Work can be done before:

1. Read the whole story - with the words in.

2. Read the whole story - deleting words in.

3. Discuss what the story is about, without actually using the words.

Work can be done after:

1. Let them use the actual story to find what words were actually there - discuss.

2. Teacher gives alternatives - discuss these, and their own suggestions.

4. Class discuss in small groups.

Quick method of making Cloze Procedure Exercises:

1. Choose a story of suitable reading level, length, interest.

2. Photocopy

3. Underline (using pencil or reprographic pen) words to be deleted.

4. Make stencil by using heat copier.

5. Using correction fluid, blank out words to be deleted.

6. Stencil is now ready to be used.

This is quick. The stencil is neat, and often has a picture or two to make it more interesting.

C. *SOCIAL ENGLISH AND MATHEMATICS*

The Social English and Mathematics class is for adults whose reading ages are above the highest levels catered for in adult remedial reading classes but whose reading skills, general English skills and mathematics skills are what they themselves consider to be less than adequate. One session of 90 minutes is taken each week.

The students

The age range is from late teens to middle age. Some have had very little schooling while others are studying for the Senior Examination. Some have managerial positions, some are self-employed and some have unskilled occupations. Most are quite intelligent people and all of them lack confidence in their abilities.

The number who attend each week varies but an average attendance is about twenty.

The program

It is difficult to devise a program that will cater for such a diverse group of people. The following are the main areas where most of the students have deficits and so the program is centred around these areas:

1. Reading comprehension
2. Speed of reading
3. Spelling
4. Punctuation and grammar
5. Filling in forms and letter writing
6. The four basic mathematical operations
7. Decimals and fractions
8. Metric conversion

The program is geared at a mid to upper primary level.

CHAPTER 9

MINORITIES AND THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK
THE SECOND GENERATION ADOLESCENT

Ellie Vasta

With immigration, changes in the family structure are likely to occur due to the changes in life style which usually results in a differing rate of assimilation by each of its individual members. The process of cultural transformation can be slow for adults, whose belief systems, habits and modes of thought have reached a stage of maturity prior to migration. In the case of young children, however, the process of integration, aided by the school and interaction with the community at large, takes place rapidly due to their general receptivity and to rewards to be gained from social participation with members of the host culture. Because these children assimilate relatively quickly, they often reject their parents' culture and strongly identify with their Australian peers.

Second generation adolescents, being exposed to opposing influences from their parents' culture and from the Australian mainstream culture, are likely to experience more personal and social problems than their Australian counterpart. They may not be adjusted to either culture for, in many cases, due to the contravention of parents, they are hindered from reshaping the environment to suit their particular abilities and needs.

Aims of the study

A pilot study was conducted in 1975 on the personal and social adjustment problems of second generation Italian immigrants, aged between thirteen and nineteen years. The study was restricted to the suburb of New Farm, Brisbane, a densely populated Southern Italian area. The focal point of investigation was the level of personal and social adjustment of second generation Italian migrants in relation to their degree of assimilation. Their parents' level of assimilation was also taken into account, for these children have to find a compromise between the possible unassimilative dispositions of their parents and their own assimilative tendencies. It was the assumption of this study, then, that in detecting the level of personal and social adjustment of these adolescents, there is a relationship between parents' assimilation and children's assimilation. Hence, if parents' assimilation is high, then the children's level of personal and social adjustment will also be high.

Methodology

From a list of all Italian families living in New Farm, the resulting population with teenage children was approximately 300 families. The eldest teenage child from thirty randomly selected families, with sex being a controlling factor, was chosen. Thus, fifteen girls and fifteen boys were interviewed. The sample accounted for ten per cent of the total population with teenage children. The majority of Italians interviewed were Southern Italian.

Empirical data gathered in the study were obtained from two semi-structured Interview Schedules, one measuring Child Assimilation and the other measuring Parent Assimilation, and a Questionnaire to Measure Child Adjustment. Additional information was obtained through interviewing of people connected to those concerned in the study area, while the respondents themselves provided much background information during the interview period.

The family

The structure of the Southern Italian Family is similar to the British-type family system, though its function differs in that its members exist for the sole purpose of advancing the interests of the family as a unit. The individuality of its members is secondary to the existence and function of the family unit. Prestige, status, comfort, security and other needs are gained by means of the family, and individual wishes and needs are sacrificed, if necessary, for the general improvement of the family. Hence, the family is the centre of Southern Italian organization, and personal liberty and freedom are severely limited.

Conversely, in the Australian family, individual goals have primacy over group goals, which illustrates the inherent differences in values between both cultures. During adolescence, suitable models for identification are sought by the teenager outside the migrant home or ethnic group. Peer group relationships are formed with teenagers of Australian born parents and school teachers often become identification figures. The adolescent growing up in Australia generally patterns his behaviour to fit the Australian norm. It has been noted that this process of integration is supported by the school system and, in addition, peer groups act as a powerful force to wean the adolescent away from his migrant culture.

While he may fit comfortably into both cultures simultaneously, in many cases, due to differing values and expectations from each group, the second generation migrant may exist in a state of indecision which can have serious repercussions being manifested in mental disorders, delinquency, restlessness, disorientation and occupational instability.

These problems are accentuated where parents have had a minimal amount of education and where insufficient knowledge of the English language exists. One young girl remarked that because she was Italian, her teachers had low occupational aspirations for her since this, they thought was a reflection of the aspirations held by Italian parents for their daughters.

Her parents, in fact, had reasonably high aspirations but were unable to encourage and advise her on account of the abovementioned reasons. On leaving school, she settled for an office job, but has since commenced a University course.

Education and the school

Southern Italian families generally place great emphasis on economic security. With the exception of a few families in this sample, educational aspirations for their children were not very significant. Many parents commented that it is up to the children to decide for themselves, and that if they decide to go to University, then the parents would help in every possible way, though there is no initial encouragement from parents. These Italian parents consider school as a separate entity rather than combining home and school to provide an all-round education. One prominent member of the community asserted that the educational aspirations of Southern Italian parents are not seen in the sense of developing as a person, but rather for the money and prestige to be gained from such occupations as medicine and law.

Boys are restricted in the sense that they are put to work at an early age, during week-ends and after school. This drive from parents is instilled in the children at an early age so that they must work hard in order to gain security. "Australian kids wouldn't work like this", remarked a community youth leader. A higher education for girls is frowned upon, though many girls are allowed to complete their senior years, for this will keep them from becoming dissident through liberal influences to be gained at work. For example, Australian girls are allowed out and have a free attitude towards life. By the time the Italian girls leave school, they will have reached courting age.

Language is one factor which presents problems for the second generation adolescent and it is one area which often goes unnoticed. Their mastery of the English language can be severely hindered for a number of reasons. Firstly, they are made to speak their parents' language in the home and secondly, they are not exposed to a middleclass learning environment where books, magazines and general knowledge for example, form part of the cultural background. These children lack the knowledge of Australian colloquialisms, and the development of the process of concept formation in English and expression in that language is restricted. It appears that the school and teachers have overlooked this problem among second generation adolescents who supposedly have acquired the same language skills as their Australian peers. This impediment in mastering the English language to a suitable level is one which continues into the job situation.

The other major problem is the clash in values between school and the home. A number of studies[1] have shown that if the child successfully

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1. *Brotherhood of St. Lawrence*, Two Worlds (Melbourne: Stockland Press,) 1971.
   Department of Education, New Farm Primary School Project, *University of Queensland, 1975.*

fulfils his role within the home, then parents show no great concern about his behaviour at school, for teachers are supposed to wield their authority in that environment. Yet, while the school is attempting to teach them the Australian values of freedom and individuality, the parents expect their children to be useful family members.

Work

The transition from school to work poses many problems for the marginal individual. One girl expressed her feelings about work by saying that she felt like an outcast because she felt uneasy in the company of her Australian work mates. These feelings can arise due to the following reasons:

a. The inability to express oneself clearly. One girl mentioned the fact that she cannot express herself fully in either Italian or English for her knowledge of both languages is incomplete.

b. Social differences become blatantly obvious to these teenagers. Girls complain of not being allowed to go out unchaperoned which limits the amount of social interaction with their Australian peers. Further, boys are not allowed to go away to the coast for weekends. One girl has told her office friends that she is "going steady" and for this reason does not socialize with them. In fact, she has no steady boyfriend and is met at the bus stop by her parents after work.

c. Economic differences also exist for, in many cases, wages are handed over to parents. For example, one boy who wanted to buy a car was told to buy a block of land, and many girls cannot keep up with the fashions to the extent that they would like for they must put money aside for the "glory box".

d. Differences in backgrounds and customs are another problem which these teenagers have to cope with. Factors which appear insignificant to the undiscerning eye can be a source of embarrassment, for example, when co-workers discuss what they ate for dinner last night.

One other relevant point which warrants mention is the lack of second generation migrants in high-status jobs. In this sample, all working girls had clerical positions, while all the working boys were skilled manual workers. Cronin (1970) found similar results in her study on Sicilians in Sydney. Two important factors explain this situation:

a. These teenagers come from a protected environment where parents foster a dependence on them due to their belief that young people are incapable of making their own decisions and therefore need close parental supervision. Boys are closely supervised till the age of 21 and girls are protected

till they marry, at which time the husband takes over the responsibility of guiding and protecting them.

b. Parental attitudes towards education is another contributing factor. While boys may be encouraged to pursue a higher education, seen mostly as a vehicle for social advancement and prestige, a career for girls is frowned upon. One illustration of this point is that of a trainee-teacher who wanted to become a career person in public relations. The parents would not allow her so she resorted to teaching, for otherwise, she would have had to leave home. "I'd be looking for individual development and satisfaction in a career. But I've had to subdue this desire for it would conflict with my parents' life style." Her parents are satisfied with her chosen career for, apart from the financial and social prestige to be gained, her working hours are set.

Not only, then, do these adolescents have to adjust to both cultures, but they have to adjust to new environments within these cultures, an emotionally enduring experience for the marginal individual caught between the two. These are the children who are being overlooked both at school and at work. There are many programs available to aid the assimilation process of first generation adolescent migrants, yet little attention is paid to the migrant child born in Australia who is supposedly exposed to the same environmental influences as his Australian peers.

Nevertheless, additional findings in this study suggested that the original hypothesis should be modified. As parent assimilation increases, child relationship with parents improves and as child relationship with parents improves, the level of child adjustment increases. Thus, independent of the child's level of assimilation, his level of personal and social adjustment will increase as he is allowed the freedom to assimilate. Where the latter exists, his relationship with his parents improves, and this being so, his level of personal and social adjustment increases. Hence, where friction between parents and child is minimal, the latter is able to contend more easily with problems in both cultures.

Yet one girl, a university student, expressed her feelings as follows:

> "I've always felt outside my parents' culture because I can't accept it, and I've always felt outside the Australian culture because I can't belong to it. I just float in mid-air and it's lonely."

Reference

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CHAPTER 10

MINORITIES AND THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

Dawn Muir

It seems to me that we create many avoidable problems for ourselves as soon as we speak of minority groups, migrants, or ethnic groups. These labels have become or perhaps always were emotionally changed in our society with accusations of inequality, compensation, advantage or disadvantage. I think we find it extremely difficult to make grand generalizations when intra-group differences can be as large as the inter-group differences, and when we are aiming at the educational ideal of being able to help "each individual child to realize his potential".

Rather than tackle the seminar topic by nominating minority groups and looking at problems that may or may not arise for particular children, I would like us to explore the notion that helping children realize their potential abilities and aspirations on leaving school for work is hindered by a number of barriers that traditionally have existed and still exist in our society.

These include the barrier between *society and school*. What is the role of school in society? Is it the forerunner of change? Is it a reflection of society? Whichever is chosen would develop an educational philosophy, a set of aims, teaching techniques and evaluation procedures that might result in conflict. Are we teaching children to enter the work force now or are we trying to educate youngsters so that they will be able to cope with an increasingly complex society 10, 15 or 20 years from now?

A second barrier exists between *home and school*. Where school reflects closely the attitudes, values and aspirations of and the expectations for the student and the style of discipline of the home this barrier may be virtually non-existent. Where the culture of the home differs from that of the school this barrier is real and sometimes a very handicapping one for the student.

A third barrier exists between *community and family*. This can be seen in community attitudes sometimes described as "ockerism". Also the authority institutions such as the legal medical and educational professions, police, employment and immigration authorities may easily conflict with cultural values within the family unit.

A fourth area that of the *school and the student*. Although the notion of Australia as a homogeneous society is breaking down, our education system does not seem to be able to cope with the concept of a pluralistic society. This is reflected in a school system that, as the child progresses through it, becomes increasingly irrelevant to his needs, interests and aspirations. In 1975, a survey of young workers in Victoria showed that by far the largest single response to the question, "what was the main reason for your leaving school before the 6th form?" was "disliked or fed-up with school" (26 per cent).

What can be done?

a. *School and community* conflict can be minimized by obtaining a measure of community involvement in school programs. Work Experience Programs are one example. Provision should be made for young workers to continue education through part-time study. The Schools Commission Report for the Triennium 1976-78 asserts that:

> "... the multi-cultural reality of Australian society needs to be reflected in school curricula--languages, social studies, history, literature, the arts and crafts ... while these are particularly important to undergird the self-esteem of migrant children, they also have application for all Australian children growing up in a society which could be greatly enriched through a wider sharing in the variety of cultural heritages now present in it."

b. *School and home* conflicts may be lessened by teachers who take care not to impose one culture on another and who act to lessen the ignorance and intolerance that each culture has of the other. Teachers would need to take the major responsibility for this. Other actions include:

i. use of interpreters

ii. teachers learning a foreign language

iii. teacher-family communication

iv. parental representation in school

The Community Relations Commission made suggestions for in-service education for teachers:

"i. *Information* - on the background of immigration, the situation of minority ethnic groups in this country, and the immediate locality; and on the community resources available in a multi-racial area.

ii. *Technical aspects* - involving the presentation and discussion of methods of teaching English as a second language, techniques of classroom management, curriculum development and methods of assessment of children from minority groups.

iii. *Attitudes* - involving the changing of attitudes by the use of films, small discussion groups, meeting with the local minority community both frequently and informally.

Throughout the provision of these courses there was felt to be a need to maintain a balance between dealing with the practical needs of the immediate situation and covering more academic material."

c. *Home and community* understanding may possibly be fostered through the school. However, solutions will require efforts beyond the capacity of schools alone.

d. *School and student* may grow in mutual understanding if schools seek to boost the self-confidence of the migrant student. One way to achieve this by:

i. Compensatory devices in teaching and evaluation procedures so that no student is handicapped by his school experience.

ii. Vocational and educational guidance should be geared to student needs in a pluralistic society. For too many teachers, cultural difference is synonymous with cultural defect. This attitude needs to be eradicated. The Migrant Education Action Conference in 1974 suggested inclusion of migrant language and culture in the education curriculum. In early years of primary education, bilingual teaching offers much of value. Community Relations Commission has recommended that all teachers in high migrant density areas should attend in-service training courses on both the general issues involved and on language teaching skills.

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